

EDUCATION FOR CITIZENSHIP
IN
SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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IN CITIZENSHIP

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FOREWORD

IN the last few years it has been clearly proved that democracy is by far the most difficult of all forms of government—so difficult that many nations have abandoned it in favour of more primitive forms. The decay of democracy abroad has led many people to the conclusion that, if those democratic institutions, which we in this country agree are essential for the full development of the individual, are to be preserved, some systematic training in the duties of citizenship is necessary, and indeed such training has long been practised in one form or another. Men and women receive in schools, factories, workshop and university a vocational training designed to fit them to be useful members of a trade or profession, and in the same way, it is felt, they are in equal need of a more subtle and difficult form of training to enable them to play their parts as useful members of the whole civilized community, which embraces all professions.

It is possible, as it seems to me, to regard the process of education from three main standpoints—vocational education, which concerns itself with man as an economic unit, education for leisure; and education for citizenship, which is concerned with man as a social or civic unit. The conditions in which we live to-day and the problems that confront us call for a fresh emphasis in the work of education on the social and civic responsibilities which inevitably await the intelligent citizen. A good deal of work in these directions has already been done, and no one familiar with English schools can have failed to mark their serious underlying interest in all that constitutes good citizenship. The Association for Education in Citizenship, however, believes that direct teaching for citizenship is a subject which can and must be taught more generally. Few people, I imagine, would disagree with this view, if they were convinced of its

feasibility and could envisage clearly the form which such teaching should take. It is to the solution of these two problems that the present book is directed. A previous publication¹ under the auspices of the Association set out to make clear the general need and the aim of such teaching, the intention now is to show precisely how that aim can be achieved in practice

The intangible nature of the subject and the fierce controversies which centre round the whole question make the experienced teacher hesitate to undertake such an apparently formidable task. The authors of this book believe that the second of these difficulties is much exaggerated, and that there is in fact a great expanse of ground common to all parties on which the teaching may be based. Whether this is so I must leave others to judge, but I can warmly commend the book to the attention of all those who are concerned with the vital connexion between education and the realities of national life.

OLIVER F. G. STANLEY

President of the Board of Education

July, 1935

¹ *Training for Citizenship*, by Sir Ernest Simon and Eva M. Hubback (O U P 15)

PREFACE

I TAKE it as a high privilege that I have been allowed to introduce so distinguished a company of writers on a subject of such common and urgent interest. Citizenship is the heritage of all of us, and we all share the responsibility of bringing it to the highest stage of efficiency which the nature of the subject admits. Some topics, e g history, geography, economics, and politics, are immediately germane and relevant, in other cases, such as biology, mathematics, art, and literature, the connexion may be more indirect, but the line of approach is equally continuous, and the whole makes up a corpus of Education no branch of which can be safely neglected. The work of the class-room can be strengthened and corroborated by external activities, directed to the one end of inculcating the best kind of life, with as little as possible of bias and partisanship and with the utmost of concentration and dispassionate judgement.

The volume is primarily intended for teachers in our secondary schools, but is wide enough to appeal to all who are interested in educational methods at whatever stage they enter upon the course of school or university training. Hence it takes for granted the desire that freedom should prevail as a condition of unfettered growth, and attempts to correlate the different activities of institutional life. But the desire for freedom is not in itself sufficient. There are in most subjects highly technical aspects which require for adequate treatment such expertise as comes only with long training, the terms must be understood in all their implications, and the adherence to their message must be not only devoted but intelligent.

In presenting a work so complex and so controversial it has proved impossible to avoid all bias. But at least we may claim to represent all relevant points of view and to state fairly the issues between them. In this task we have been greatly assisted by the diversity of interests which claim attention and by the variety of standpoints which our different

contributors occupy. We take direct responsibility only for the chapters written by the Chairman and Honorary Secretary of the Association, for the others, though our Secondary Schools committee (see p. 266) has considered and approved nearly all of them, this does not carry with it the endorsement of all the opinions and suggestions contained in them, and each author is directly responsible for his own. We should like here gratefully to acknowledge our indebtedness to our many and distinguished contributors. Our aim has been to develop a coherent scheme based on axioms and on statements of current agreement. But the measure of success with which our attempts have met must be determined by the dispassionate reader.

W. H. HADOW

President

Association for Education in Citizenship

July, 1935.

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I. THE AIMS AND THEORY OF EDUCATION FOR CITIZENSHIP

CHAPTER 1

THE AIMS OF EDUCATION FOR CITIZENSHIP

By SIR ERNEST SIMON, M.A.

*Chairman of the Association for Education in Citizenship
Treasurer of Manchester University*

THE purpose of education is often stated in some general phrase to form character, to produce a sound mind in a sound body, the complete and harmonious development of all the powers of personality. Most people would accept any of these definitions because they can be interpreted to mean almost anything. It is easy to agree on the desirability of a 'liberal' education, but when we go on to consider whether this will be best achieved by English or history or science or classics—by a broad curriculum or by specialization—agreement becomes impossible until we have defined our aim more clearly.

The main object which most parents have in mind in wishing to give their children the best possible education, is to enable them to make their way in the world and earn their living. A boy at the end of his education has nowadays to face a difficult world where competition is keen and secure employment difficult to obtain. His chance of success depends largely on the education which he has received. Hence the great importance of vocational education, which seeks to give a man the training, the knowledge, and the skill to enable him to earn a good living.

It is the very strength of the demand for vocational training which causes educationists to lay stress on the inadequacy of a narrow technical training, and to urge the aims of general culture, of a broad training of the mind to cultivate the tastes and stimulate the imagination. They point out that man has to-day more leisure than ever before, and that it is the aim of

education to enable him to enjoy his leisure time in company with the great minds of the past and present

These two kinds of education, the vocational and the cultural, are often held to constitute in themselves an adequate and liberal education. But they are, in fact, only the self-regarding aspects of education directed towards an increase of the chances of *personal* worldly success, or of *personal* culture and intellectual or artistic enjoyment. They ignore a man's third great function in life his duty as a member of the community. A man may be splendidly educated as a technician, capable of doing valuable work in his vocation, he may be a profound scholar, an authority on some literary or artistic subject, and yet may be uneducated as a member of the community, knowing nothing and caring nothing about the lives of his fellow citizens, incapable of fulfilling his functions as a responsible citizen of a democratic state.

'His education should make him feel himself to be consciously at one with the community, sharing in its traditions of the past, its life and action in the present, and its aspirations and responsibilities for the future. His daily work will acquire a new significance, when he becomes aware that it may be done for the service of his nation, and, through his nation, of humanity at large.'

It is this third aim of education, education for citizenship, with which it is our purpose to deal in the following pages.

I. *The Crisis of Civilization*

Fifty years ago it was generally believed in western Europe and the United States that the human race was making assured progress towards perfection along the triple paths of science, capitalism, and democracy. Men believed that the standard of living would rise, that leisure would increase; in short that there would be a steady progress towards a better social order.

Now all this is changed. It is true that science and productive industry have continued to advance; statisticians tell us that production per head, owing to new inventions and developments, increases by 1 or 2 per cent each year. But our political control of the whole process is failing. Producers

find that there is no demand for their goods; surplus herrings are thrown back into the sea, surplus coffee is burnt. There is not enough demand for the goods that could easily be produced, yet consumers cannot afford to purchase the goods they desire.

The workers have to work long hours and overtime: there is often too much to do. For instance, nearly all teachers would like to do far more for their pupils than they can find time for. And yet, nearly one-fifth of the would-be workers in this country can find no work.

In view of the achievements of science and industry, it ought to be possible for everybody to work, say, six hours a day and to have one or two months' holiday in the year, instead of which the majority are so busy that they have little real leisure, the minority have no work at all.

The second great failure is our inability to find means of making the world secure from war. There is an almost universal demand for peace by the people of the world; elaborate machinery has been set up to secure it, yet there is everywhere doubt whether another great war can be avoided, indeed, many people almost despair of it.

There has never been a time when the world was potentially so rich, yet unemployment and insecurity were so general—there has never been a time when such efforts were made to prevent war, yet the despairing fear of its inevitability was so widespread.

II. *The Authoritarian Remedy*

The natural reaction to such political failures is to blame the Government, and when the failures continue men begin to blame the *form* of government, to talk about 'the depressed and cynical aimlessness of democracy'; to demand action and leadership. In countries where democracy was not based on long-standing tradition it has been replaced by some form of dictatorship. And the dictators are alike in deriding democracy and freedom. As the Nazis say, 'We spit on freedom', 'We think with our blood'.

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The main virtue in the citizen of any authoritarian state is discipline enthusiastic and self-sacrificing obedience. Leadership appeals to much that is instinctive in mankind. Docility has been the supreme virtue of citizenship since the days of the Pekin man, perhaps a million years ago. The essence of an authoritarian state in which the greatness of the state becomes the one absolute good is that the government dreads opposition and free thought and suppresses it by violence. Spies and persecution are inevitable. It is the duty of the citizen to obey, cruelty to human beings does not count in comparison with duty to the state. The development of British humanitarianism during the last two centuries is in striking contrast with the callous cruelty of the citizens of the new authoritarian states.

One of the most striking features of the new authoritarian states is the complete confidence of their adherents in the justice and rightness of their cause. Moreover, the authoritarians do not hesitate to use their full power to inculcate in the growing generation their own political views. The schools, the universities, the press, public speeches, the cinema, the theatre, broadcasting—all conceivable agents of publicity are united to preach the perfection of the state and the wickedness of its opponents. What effect this massed propaganda will have on youth in the long run is one of the most important questions of the next generation. One thing is certain, that it will continue to be used without scruple and without limit by the authoritarian state.

III *The Democratic Remedy*

Citizens in the democratic states tend to be disillusioned and unhappy. But in the United Kingdom the great majority still decisively reject the authoritarian view. They believe that the Fascist ideals, superficially attractive to youth, are in fact the deadly enemies of the welfare and progress of mankind, that all that differentiates us from the beasts, all that is noble and fine in human civilization, is due to the free use of the human reason to the gradual development of methods of

discussion and persuasion as opposed to violence; that the disinterested search for the spiritual values of truth, goodness, and beauty is only possible in a state built up and carried on by the co-operation of free and responsible men and women. They agree that public opinion is far from perfect; but if it is subject to panics it also responds to great ideals as in the early days of President Wilson's visit to Europe.

They regard it as nonsense to talk about the failure of democracy, which is, in fact, giving a better life to the people in this country even to-day than any dictatorship ever has done anywhere, but they are forced to admit that while democracy worked well in the relatively simple and stable conditions of pre-war days, it is not working nearly as well in the much more difficult conditions of to-day, which demand a more flexible and scientific form of government than was formerly necessary.

What can be done to improve it? We are concerned here with one remedy. Education. There has been since 1870 an immense increase in the amount of education, and a great improvement in its quality. And yet so great a democrat as Lord Bryce could write a few years ago that the people of England were then no more capable of choosing their leaders than they had been in 1870. Why has education not been more successful in producing citizens fitted to bring about a better social order?

IV. *Education To-day Inadequate*

The reason seems to us to be simple: we have never given any serious thought to education for citizenship of a democratic state, we are not giving nearly enough education, nor is it generally of the right kind.

In the first place the great majority of boys and girls finish their education at 14 or 16 and get no further formal education. The complexities of the political problem are such that only an exceptional boy whose education finishes at 16 can be expected to form a sound judgement either on political issues or on the qualities of a candidate.

On the other hand, a boy leaving school at 18, or leaving the university at 21 or 22, can, if properly taught, be given the necessary background of knowledge and the necessary interest in the affairs of the world to give him every opportunity of becoming a good citizen as he gains experience of life.

But even our university graduates have by no means always the qualities of citizenship. It is claimed that any university graduate with a good liberal education should be able to apply his powers and his knowledge to the vocation of citizenship. No doubt this is true in the case of those who, when their formal education is completed, have the time and ability and desire to acquire the necessary knowledge. A man who has done well at Oxford or Cambridge will make a first-class citizen or politician, on one condition. That after he comes down he devotes enough time to studying public affairs. But if he goes into business or a profession in the complex and competitive modern world, the pressure on his time is so great or his interest in public affairs so weak, that in most cases he never does, in fact, learn enough about politics to form independent opinions of his own.

Irrelevant learning, of however high a type, does not in itself make a competent citizen. A man who is the highest authority on the use of the Greek particles, or on the latest theories of physical science, is not necessarily capable of forming a sensible opinion about the value of the League of Nations, about the relative merits of Free Trade and Tariff Reform, or even of judging wisely the type of man who will make the best Member of Parliament or Minister of the Crown.

Unfortunately a large portion of our education is still completely detached from the problems of the modern world. Experience teaches us that a man with a good general education based on languages or science may be, and indeed often is, an excellent father, an excellent business man, and at the same time a bad citizen. It is notorious that great classical students or great scientists are quite capable of combining the best thinking on their own subject with violent prejudice and complete muddle-headedness on public affairs.

The case we wish to put forward is this that in the relatively simple society of the nineteenth century when government interfered little with the daily life of the people, indirect education for citizenship was perhaps adequate. Democracy worked fairly well without much specialized training for citizenship, either of the voter or of the statesman. To-day things have changed. The political world is so complex and difficult that it is essential to train men just as consciously and deliberately for their duties as citizens as for their vocation or profession.

V *The Citizen of Democracy*

The authoritarian states seem to have been successful in creating—at least for a time—a high degree of enthusiastic and self-sacrificing devotion among their followers. We cannot expect, or even desire, the same passionate enthusiasm among lovers of reason and liberty, for passion is the enemy of liberty. It is the task of democracy not to imitate the irrational enthusiasm of its enemies but to cultivate reason and tolerance while combating cynicism and indifference; to do all it can to foster the steady growth among its citizens of a deep and abiding faith in the justice and rightness of its principles.

Let us consider what qualities a citizen of democracy should have in addition to the qualities that go to make a good father, a good scholar, or a good business man.

Among the fundamental moral qualities he must have a deep concern for the good life of his fellows. He must have a sense of social responsibility and the will to sink his own immediate interests and the interests of his class in the common good. to do his full share in working for the community.

But these qualities alone might lead to the well-meaning dictator or the unthinking follower. The citizen of democracy must also be a man of independent judgement; he must respect the individualities of others and therefore be tolerant of opinions in conflict with his own, he must prefer methods of discussion and persuasion to methods of force.

The citizen of democracy also needs certain intellectual qualities. It is not enough to love truth; he must learn how to find it. It is easy to teach students to reason correctly in the physical sciences; it is much more difficult to teach them to reason correctly in the social sciences where their own prejudices and passions are involved. They must be taught habits of clear thinking in order that they may acquire the power of recognizing their own prejudices and of discussing political and economic questions with the same calm, the same desire to understand the other person's position, the same precision and absence of overstatement, that they would bring to the discussion of a problem in mathematics.

Further, they must acquire some knowledge of the broad facts of the world of politics and economics, they must know something both of the world of to-day and of the history of its development. We suggest that the range of interest in the world and its affairs which our education should aim at creating is more or less the range of H. G. Wells's great trilogy on History, Biology, and Economics. Without implying that these books are suitable for school use, we think that any one who had been led to read them and who found them stimulating would possess the kind of interest and knowledge which a citizen ought to have in order to form a sound judgement of public affairs.

The average voter can never be expected to form a useful opinion on the many detailed and complex issues of modern politics and economics. He may fervently wish for peace, but he cannot judge the best methods of securing disarmament and co-operation. He may wish for the abolition of unemployment and a better standard of life for all, but can hardly hope to judge in detail how these ends may be gained. A striking example of the effective working of the right kind of public opinion is given by the history of the housing of the working-classes. One hundred years ago public opinion was indifferent; the most revolting slums were built. Gradually, under the pressure of public opinion, governments began to intervene and improve the standard of housing. Since the War, from the days of the 'Homes for Heroes' campaign, public opinion

has insistently demanded the abolition of the slums and the rapid building of new houses until a good house is provided for every family. Housing has become front-page news in the penny press. As a result, every government has taken action, some in one way, some in another. Public opinion has not concerned itself with the particular methods to be adopted in dealing with the housing problem. It has wisely left such matters to the government, who have the benefit of the expert advice of the Civil Service. None the less, it has been the steady pressure of public opinion demanding that the job shall be done somehow which has been effective in greatly increasing the rate of building houses and in securing a new and better standard of working-class housing.

We believe that in an educated democracy the voter should acquire a number of soundly based convictions on the main political questions of the day. He should recognize that he has responsibilities not only as a citizen of his own country, but also as a citizen of the world, that he must be prepared to make sacrifices for international goodwill and co-operation; that there must be equal justice for all, that government should be by discussion and persuasion rather than by force, that every child should be given a fair chance of growing up sound in mind and body, and making the best of its natural faculties.

There is also a further quality which the citizen of democracy must possess: the capacity to choose a good representative and to trust him when chosen. It is not always realized how greatly our political success and stability depend on the integrity of our public life and our public services. The voter must have the right standards as to what one should honour and respect in public men: he must recognize integrity, courage, and ability, and prefer these virtues to the specious qualities of the demagogue.

To sum up, the good citizen of a democratic state must have:

1. A deep concern for the freedom and good life of his fellows
2. Such knowledge and power of clear thinking as will enable him to form sound judgements as to the main

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- problems of politics and to decide wisely which party will be most likely to achieve the ends he desires.
3. The power to select men of wisdom, integrity, and courage as public representatives, and such knowledge of his own limitations as will dispose him to trust and follow his chosen leaders.

VI *Education for Democracy*

It may be said that the picture we have drawn of the citizen of democracy is an unattainable ideal. We agree that it is an ideal, but we believe that many men and women of this country could be educated to this level. Some people attain such citizenship with little or no formal education. Lincoln may be taken as the outstanding example, but for the majority to reach this level of citizenship must depend, on the one hand, on the gradual building up of an even stronger national tradition of free citizenship than we have to-day, and on the other of more effective and direct education for citizenship. Clearly the task of the teachers would be made easier if the length of compulsory full-time education were extended and if it were followed by part-time education up to a later age, but even under existing conditions a good start is possible.

We believe that a reasonable proportion of the men and women of this country could, by the right sort of training and environment, acquire something approaching the qualities we have indicated even under the conditions of to-day. We believe a democracy with such citizens would gradually but certainly solve the problems of economics and politics which are baffling us to-day. We believe that the first great step towards such a democracy lies in giving far more conscious attention throughout our educational system to the problems of the best methods of educating citizens.

CHAPTER 2

THE PROBLEM OF TRANSFER

By SIR ERNEST SIMON, M.A.

IT used to be held that certain subjects gave specially good training or discipline to the mind, strengthening its general powers. For instance, it has been claimed that a thorough course in Latin gives the pupils a mental power which enables them to do almost anything well in after years. An Oxford professor has lately said 'There is no sounder training for the student of politics and history, or indeed of any serious subject, than to know everything about something, whether it be the chronological order of Plato's dialogues or the problem of humidity in weaving-sheds, or about placing a field or keeping a wicket'

These views are still held strongly by some teachers; if they are right, then (apart from the provision of the necessary background of knowledge) there is no special problem of education for citizenship but only a general problem of training the mind; the training will then automatically be 'transferred' to the problems of citizenship.

On the other hand, Lord Bryce stated some years ago that after two generations of general education (which included very little direct education for citizenship) the people of this country were no more capable of choosing their leaders wisely than they had been before, and as will be shown later, psychologists who have studied this problem of transfer would seem to support Lord Bryce.

There are thus two flatly contradictory views on the general training of the mind. Is it enough to aim at 'an all-round training of the mind'; by making the mind so flexible and powerful an instrument that it will automatically acquire the qualities necessary for citizenship, or must we aim consciously and deliberately at giving the actual qualities and knowledge required for citizenship? It is utterly impossible even to begin to devise a sensible curriculum for the training of

citizens until we have made up our minds what the facts are on this vital problem of 'transfer'.

I *Social Thinking*

Let us consider in the first place the kind of problems on which a citizen must make up his mind. One of the questions on which many elections have turned, and are likely to turn in the future, is that of the relative merits of free trade and protection. On what arguments does a wise decision on this controversy depend in any given country at any given time?

In the first place we have the economic arguments. How will the fiscal system affect the standard of living? If protection increases the cost of living, will there be a corresponding rise in wages? If protection tends to create monopolies, will their mass-production methods lower costs, or will they become inefficient and so increase costs? Will they use their control of the market to put up prices unduly? What will be the effect on unemployment? If protection increases employment in home industries, will it decrease employment in the export trades to a greater or less degree?

Secondly, there is an entirely separate set of questions of a political nature. What will be the effect of free trade or protection on the prospects of war and peace? Is free international trade the best guarantee of world peace? Is protection essential in order to bind the empire together or to foster industries which are necessary for the defence of the country in time of war?

Is a relatively undeveloped and agricultural country like Australia justified in protesting that its citizens are not prepared to remain 'hewers of wood and drawers of water' for the rest of the world—in demanding protection so as to develop industries and complete the national life?

Thirdly, there are moral questions involved. Does protection mean that different trades will spend immense amounts of money on lobbying and bringing pressure to bear on Members of Parliament? Will such action tend to corrupt Parliament and threaten the integrity of public life? On the other

hand, is it possible to avoid such dangers by the appointment of a tariff commission, independent of Parliament?

Another difficulty is that these problems are always presented at elections in highly emotional forms:

‘Your food will cost you more’

‘Make the foreigner pay’

‘Tariff reform means work for all’

‘British industries are being ruined by the dumping of foreign goods made by coolie labour.’

Then again, nearly every citizen has some personal interest in the matter: the producer wants protection to increase his profits, the consumer wants free trade to get cheap food. It is a subject which in England has been very controversial for the last twenty or thirty years, most people have imbibed from their environment a strong prejudice on the one side or the other.

There are endless arguments for and against protection: economic, political, moral. It is exceedingly difficult to be sure what is the best course, even when the arguments are fairly stated and dispassionately considered, much more so when bias and prejudice are constantly present in press articles and in the speeches of party politicians.

We have deliberately chosen a very difficult problem, fortunately many of the big issues on which votes depend are much simpler and more easily understood. It is clear that the ordinary citizen can never be expected to judge wisely on the free trade protection question as the result of his own independent study of the problem, but we may reasonably hope that he will learn to choose wisely the leaders and thinkers in whose judgement he places confidence. Let us consider what qualities are needed, in lesser degree by the ordinary citizen, in greater degree by the leaders and experts, in order to acquire the art of social judgement.

II. *Intellectual Qualities Needed*

The intellectual qualities needed to form a wise judgement on social affairs would seem to be as follows

1 *Interest* The citizen must be interested in the affairs of the modern world.

2 *Knowledge*. He must have some knowledge both of recent history and of the political and economic affairs of the world of to-day and of what has led up to them

3 *Clear Thinking—Logic*. He must have the power and the habit of clear thinking about public affairs. He must endeavour to make sure that he has considered all the important data before coming to a conclusion. He must endeavour to weigh arguments for and against a given course, even though some of the arguments may be of a fundamentally different nature from others: for instance, it is impossible to find an accurate measure of the relative importance of a moral argument as against an economic argument. The final verdict on such matters must be an almost intuitive act of judgement; but to be wise, it must be based on knowledge and clear thinking

4. *Clear Thinking—Elimination of Prejudice*. He must, as far as is humanly possible, recognize and discount the effect both of his own prejudices and interests, and of unfair propaganda used by others.

III. *The Scholar as Citizen*

Does Learning teach Citizenship?

Let us consider how far specialized training in some subject not related to citizenship is likely to provide these four qualities. Let us examine the extreme case of a man of outstanding ability who by a course of thorough and scholarly study has become a leading authority on some language or science, say, romance philology or cryptogamic botany. Assuming that he has not devoted any serious attention to public affairs, how far is his training likely in itself to make him into a good citizen?

Such specialized subjects are of profound interest to the student. It is widely held in the university world that any addition to knowledge, so long as it is ancient or scientific, is of great value. Indeed, some people still maintain that research is in some way better and more important if it is of no direct value to mankind. As a learned don recently said, 'I would never prostitute learning to living'

The professor is regarded by his colleagues and pupils as an authority. He leads a life full of interest and importance to himself. He has a strong tendency to confine himself to his own work, hoping that other people will maintain law and order, govern the country, and produce the necessary wealth to enable him to escape from the worries of a difficult world by living a secluded life in university surroundings.

A learned specialist then is apt to be uninterested in the modern world. In most cases he will have learnt nothing about that world in the course of his education, nor is he likely to be sufficiently interested to take the trouble necessary to understand its problems in later life.

An anonymous scientist has pointed out:

'University graduates with a high degree of specialized knowledge in some particular branch of science generally know little of any science but their own, know next to nothing either of the history of the scientific movement which has transformed the world, or of the influence of science in the present day world. Their ignorance of other aspects of human culture is still more complete.'

We now come to the important question: Does the learned specialist think clearly in public affairs? There can, of course, be no doubt that his studies must have improved his powers of clear thought, and that he could learn to apply these powers to public affairs more easily than a less educated man. But in fact he often fails to do so. Everybody knows of cases where the brilliant specialist is a child in politics. Professor Field accounts for this by pointing out that:

'A scientist is often liable to feel that because his exact standards are not applicable, therefore there are in such subjects no standards at all. As a result of this he may sometimes become merely indifferent to all such questions. But more often, perhaps, he plunges into them without any of the care that he would observe in his own scientific research and allows his prejudices free rein.'

The man whose scholarship is confined to some narrow speciality, and who has never given any serious thought to public affairs, is an easy victim of propaganda. He has not the equipment to enable him to see through the arts of the

propagandist. It is extraordinary how often the views, even of really distinguished scientists, fail to rise above conventional partisanship

We find then there are four intellectual qualities necessary for the formation of sound social judgement and that mere learning gives none of them. It does not ensure an interest in public affairs, rather it diverts the scholar's interests to the glories of the past or the interior of the atom. It does not provide the necessary knowledge of the modern world. It does not give the habit of rational thought in public affairs. It does not help the scholar to know or control his own prejudices outside his own subject. It is hardly surprising that the scholar often lacks the qualities of a good citizen! As Lord Bryce pointed out 'Attainments in learning and science do little to make men wise in politics. Some eminent scientific men have been in this respect no wiser than their undergraduate pupils.'

IV *The Doctrine of 'Transfer' The Psychologist's View*

Fifty years ago it was generally believed that the study of Latin gave a general training to the mind, that learning *Vigil* by heart strengthened the memory for all purposes, that doing a Latin prose accurately taught clear thinking in all subjects.

Leslie Stephen, in *The Life of Sir James Stephen, Bart*, tells the following story about education at Eton in 1842:

'Balston, our tutor, was a good scholar after the fashion of the day, and famous for Latin verse, but he was essentially a commonplace don. "Stephen major," he once said to my brother, "if you do not take more pains, how can you ever expect to write good longs and shorts? If you do not write good longs and shorts, how can you ever be a man of taste? If you are not a man of taste, how can you ever hope to be of use in the world?"'

Sir Percy Nunn has summed up the old belief on this matter as follows.¹

'The famous doctrine of formal training asserts that facility acquired in any particular form of intellectual exercise produces

¹ *Education Data and First Principles*, p. 240

a general competence in all exercises that involve the same "faculty".

This doctrine was generally believed up to 1890, when William James, as a result of experiments in endeavouring to improve memory in one field by practice in another, suggested that 'transfer' did not occur as freely as had been supposed. Since then there has been a mass of experiments by psychologists. As a result of these experiments and of observation of actual experience in different kinds of training, psychologists are now agreed that there is certainly very much less 'transfer' than was previously thought. It is suggested that the belief in 'transfer' was due to what may be called 'the fallacy of selection'. The best pupils were picked out to study Latin. At the end of their career they were still the best pupils; the credit was given to Latin. But as Dr Thouless¹ says:

' Latin was and is really a test of intelligence. Those who did well at Latin in school, also very generally did best in later life, not because the learning of Latin trained them in any useful way but because they were the boys of highest intelligence, and the same intelligence which enabled them to succeed in Latin at school enabled them to become good administrators &c later in life. This is still no good argument for a classical education, since we can now make in an hour by means of intelligence tests, a better estimate of a boy's intelligence than could be made by Latin teaching at the cost of four or five years of school life. It was educationally a very uneconomical way of discriminating intelligences.'

Professor Godfrey Thomson, in *Instinct, Intelligence, and Character* (pp 134-48), sums up the position as follows

"Transfer of training appears, to put it cautiously, to be much less certain and of much narrower spread than once was believed. Subjects of instruction will not therefore be included in the curriculum light-heartedly on the formal "discipline of the mind"

¹ We have been in consultation as regards this Chapter with numerous authorities, among others Professor Cyril Burt, Professor G. C. Field, Professor of Philosophy at Bristol University, Dr R. H. Thouless, Lecturer in Psychology at Glasgow University, Mr J. E. Hales, ex-Inspector of the Board of Education. Quotations in the text, where no reference is given, are from letters or memoranda supplied to us by the authors.

argument. Other things being reasonably equal, useful subjects will have the preference.'

Professor Cyril Burt has put this conclusion even more strongly.

'... Careful research has shown that neither the mind as a whole nor its separate faculties can be trained by simply exercising them. Education consists rather in implanting specific habits, memories, ideas, forms of manual and mental skill, intellectual interests, moral ideals, and a knowledge not only of facts and conclusions but also of methods. The secondary school curriculum still includes many subjects which the majority of the pupils will never need to use in after-life. There may be non-psychological grounds for their retention. But it can no longer be supported by claiming that they supply "a valuable mental gymnastic" or provide "an all-round training for the mind".'

Dr Thouless sums up:

'... The point is that methods of teaching depending on transfer of training are relatively inefficient. If we want a pupil to learn B, and teach him A in the hope that he will improve in B, we are at best only getting a small fraction of the improvement of B that we should get if we taught him B directly. When we consider also the fact that school time is limited, the argument against teaching A is overwhelming.'

But nobody doubts that there is some transfer from one subject to another: to deny this would be almost to deny the difference in general life between an educated and an uneducated man. As Sir Percy Nunn puts it in *Education Data and First Principles* (p. 242):

'We conclude that the training produced by an occupation or a study consists primarily in a facility in applying certain ideas and methods to situations of a certain kind, and in a strong tendency to bring the same ideas and methods to bear upon any situation akin to these.'

The question is under what conditions of training is 'transfer' most likely to occur?

To take an example: How can a pupil be trained to think accurately in all subjects? The answer seems to be that if he does a sum in arithmetic accurately and thinks of nothing but

that sum, there is likely to be little transfer. If, on the other hand, whenever he is studying any subject, the teacher makes it clear that accuracy of thought is in itself one of the most important aims in education; that it is a method which must be applied in all walks of life; that the student should make an ideal of never being slipshod or inaccurate, then accurate thinking is likely gradually to become a generalized habit. This is well put by Mr. Charles Fox in *Educational Psychology*.

'... If immediate results are aimed at without considering the ultimate aim of education, it is possible to acquire a high degree of particular skill without affecting general capacity. Where, on the other hand, an ideal is consciously pursued, a motive is at work which is capable of changing the whole mental outlook, since it is of the nature of an ideal to engender a "divine discontent" with whatever falls short of it. For example, a training in mathematics may produce exactness of thought in other departments of intellectual work, and a love of truth, provided that the training is of such a kind as to inculcate an ideal which the pupil values and strives to attain.'

This view is confirmed by Professor Thomson.

'From experiments of an exact nature and from much more numerous and unrecorded experiments of a rough and ready sort which teachers are every day making, it seems very probable that transfer can be greatly aided by methods of teaching. In general, the rule appears to be that any teaching which makes the pupil more conscious of how successful results are obtained, is likely to assist transfer.'

Also by Professor Cyril Burt:

'Thus merely to practice a child in accuracy of scientific reasoning by quietly correcting his errors may not produce any generalized power of reasoning logically, but if the child is encouraged to form an ideal of accuracy in reasoning, he may try to live up to that ideal in every department of life.'

The conclusions which would probably be generally agreed by psychologists on this question of transfer as it affects training for citizenship may be summed up as follows:

1. Transfer of training from one subject to another takes place on a much smaller scale than used to be believed. Often

there is none at all. It follows that pupils can best be trained for citizenship through subjects which are directly of value to the citizen in after life

2. There are certain general methods and ideas, as for example those which contribute towards clear thinking and intellectual integrity, which should become pervasive habits throughout the whole of a pupil's thinking. These can be learnt in one subject and then applied to another within certain limits and under certain conditions. Such transfer will happen more freely if the subjects are similar to one another, and if the pupils are constantly made aware by the teachers of the importance of applying these methods and ideas to all their thinking.

V *The Best Curriculum for Education in Citizenship*

The teaching of psychologists is clear. If one wants to train pupils for a certain purpose, they should study subjects not merely because they are supposed to be specially good discipline for the mind, but because they are useful for that purpose. When training for the ordinary professions this is regarded as obvious. Nobody thinks of training doctors through Hebrew or engineers through theology. Surely it should be recognized that it is equally important to train citizens not through some 'disciplinary' subject like Latin but through subjects which are directly useful to the citizen in later life.

How can this best be done? We have shown that the citizen needs four different intellectual qualities: interest in social sciences, the necessary basis of knowledge, the power of logical thought, and ability to recognize and discount prejudice. Let us consider what training is most likely to produce these different qualities

Interest and Knowledge

By far the most important thing is that a pupil should at the end of his school career be interested in public affairs and should have some knowledge of them. That he should be capable of reading the newspapers with interest and intelli-

gence If so, he is likely to continue to educate himself in citizenship If not, the probabilities are that he will never acquire the qualities of citizenship

It must be clear to all that as regards interest and knowledge there is no transfer from unrelated subjects to the social sciences. On the contrary, an intensive study of the classics tends to produce an interest in the great days of Greece and actually to divert interest from the Europe of to-day. The only way to interest pupils in the modern world is to study public affairs.

VI *Clear Thinking · Logic*

The problem of teaching the habit of clear and logical thinking in the social sciences is much more difficult than the acquisition of the necessary knowledge

The first thing is to learn the elements of clear thinking This inevitably begins in learning one's own language. Mr J. E. Hales writes as follows

'The teacher of English will not be satisfied in written exercises with work which is verbally correct but otherwise feeble and unenterprising He requires more exercise of intelligence and finds it necessary to organize practice in observation, selection, and arrangement if his pupils are to succeed in even the simpler forms of writing, such as descriptions and narration When they come to write about more abstruse subjects, making greater demands on their power of expression, their work may be expected to show, apart from definite grammatical lapses, faults of shallowness, clumsiness, obscurity and incoherence which must be dealt with, not by reference to grammars and dictionaries, but by further exploration of the subject in hand and by deepening and clarifying the thought'

If English were generally taught in this way it would undoubtedly provide a valuable training in clear thinking If the subjects about which the pupil is writing are varied, and include human relations, and if the teacher draws attention to the importance of clear thinking as a general method, then the habit is likely to be transferred to other subjects.

The very foundation of mathematics and science is, of

course, clear thinking. They demand the understanding of the relation of cause and effect; training in the whole scientific method of observation and experiment, of induction, deduction, and verification. Here, again, it is essential to impress upon the pupil the importance of using scientific methods of thinking in all subjects. How rigidly these methods may be limited to the classroom is shown by the case of a brilliant student who confessed that at the end of her university career it had never occurred to her that scientific methods were relevant to anything that happened outside the laboratory!

It is not enough for the student to acquire the habit of scientific thought in the physical sciences. Most public questions nowadays involve economics, and economic thinking differs from the simpler kind of clear thinking required in the languages and in science as taught at school in the fact that there is no longer a simple relation between cause and effect, but that generally several causes have to be taken into consideration in arriving at a conclusion which is not certain but only probable. The causes do not definitely produce a result but have a *tendency* to do so.

Let us consider a simple instance from the free trade protection controversy. Supposing a voter is satisfied that protection will mean on the one hand a lower standard of living and on the other less unemployment. That alone will not enable him to form a wise decision. He must try to find out *how much* the standard will be reduced, and *how much* additional employment will be given. He must learn that sound thinking in economics is quantitative thinking. Clearly the capacity to think quantitatively in economics cannot be learnt by studying languages or physics: it can only be learnt by the direct study of economics or some similar subject.

And even this is not enough. For we have shown that the free trade protection controversy may involve not only economic arguments, but also political and moral arguments. None of these can be weighed against one another by any quantitative scientific method. Let us suppose that a voter, having carefully studied the problem, comes to the conclusion that the introduction of protection will mean two things: a

reduction in unemployment and a tendency to demoralize public life by introducing the lobbying system into Westminster. How is he to weigh these two conflicting arguments? He cannot do it scientifically. The best he can do is to have a wide and general knowledge of all the surrounding circumstances, and gradually to build up the quality of social judgement, to come to the wisest conclusion which is humanly practicable.

Is it too much to say that no human being, however able, can conceivably learn to think logically and clearly about public affairs, except as the result of the direct study of public affairs?

VII. *Clear Thinking: The Avoidance of Prejudice*

How best can the pupil be trained in the other aspect of clear thinking which is so important in the social sciences? how can he learn to recognize and to discount the use of emotional words and metaphors, the fallacies of propaganda which shriek at him in daily life from the press, from hoardings, from political party speeches? To see the truth, in spite of what Graham Wallas calls 'the advancing art of political exploitation'?

Clearly this can only be learnt from subjects in which the emotions are involved. There is no danger of an emotional bias in solving an algebraic equation, mathematics cannot teach how to avoid the pitfalls of propaganda. Nor can the physical sciences

Much can be done in the study of English, if the teacher insists that the pupil shall carefully consider the emotional effect of words and metaphors, and translation into a foreign language, ancient or modern, may help towards a clear understanding in this matter

But the actual problems of the interference of prejudice and emotion with clear thinking can best be studied in the social sciences where they constantly arise. They are present in almost all human relations, and can be studied either as regards the past in the history lesson, or as regards the present in any of the social sciences. They may be studied directly in lessons based on such a book as Thouless's *Straight and*

Crooked Thinking And valuable experience may be gained outside the classroom by the discussion of social and political problems, and of the domestic politics which arise in school life.

VIII *Conclusion*

Some men learn wisdom even though they have had no formal education worth speaking of. Lincoln is an outstanding example. Many have learnt wisdom after a narrow education: for instance, the formal education of many of our finest statesmen in the past was limited to a study of the classics.

But such men have invariably acquired political wisdom in one way only: by going into public life, by devoting much time and thought to public affairs, and so educating themselves in citizenship.

It is also true that many men will never become politically wise, however admirable their formal education may be. Either they are incapable of wisdom or they are uninterested in public affairs. Of course we do not suggest that everybody should be politically minded. Civilization depends on scientists, artists, poets, philosophers, many of whom will always be quite uninterested in public affairs. But if democracy is to be successful, the majority must be competent citizens, interested in the world around them, and for these their formal education is profoundly important. It is vital that they should finish their school career with a background of knowledge, and above all with such an interest in public affairs that they will continue to educate themselves.

If we wish to train good citizens of democracy it is essential that one of the conscious and deliberate aims of their teachers should be to interest their pupils in the affairs of the modern world and so to train them that they will later develop a power of wise social judgement. Many schools are already doing splendid pioneer work. We are making a good beginning, but it is only a beginning. The work must be far more widely spread, much thought and experiment will be necessary before the best form of education for this purpose can be devised.

CHAPTER 3

BIAS AND DOGMA

By EVA M. HUBBACK, M A

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Principal of Morley College for Working Men and Women*

I *Bias in the Teacher*

THE importance of giving some knowledge of the modern world and of its political and economic problems to children and young people is widely realized. But there are many who hesitate to advocate this in practice, because they feel that a party bias or, at any rate, a one-sided view on the part of the teacher is unavoidable, and that the expression of his bias or the advocacy of his point of view in the classroom might justifiably be resented by parents or by members of local education committees and other governing bodies. Further, it is urged that even if no objection be actually raised, such teaching might unfairly prejudice the future outlook of the mentally unprotected pupil by imposing on him a ready-made set of views.

This nervousness has increased considerably during the last few years as a result of what is happening in the authoritarian states, where the teachers are required to put before the children in the schools the particular political and economic creed supported by the state in question and are strictly prohibited from putting forward any other. It is felt—and felt rightly—that teaching of the kind insisted on by Russia, by Germany, and by Italy is at the opposite pole from the training in independent judgement in political, as in other matters, that is—or should be—one of the chief aims of our educational system.

It is, however, reassuring to note that this fear of unduly biased teaching is not usually shared by the teaching profession itself, nor by educational administrators most closely in touch with the actual classroom. We have inquired from teachers engaged in discussing contemporary problems with

their pupils as to whether any objection, either from within or from without the school, has arisen over the question of bias in the teaching. They were unanimous with regard to the absence of any complaints from parents; and only in a small number of cases do objections appear to have been raised by inspectors or by members of local education committees or of other governing bodies. The rarity of such complaints should go far to encourage any teacher who would be prepared to include the teaching of modern affairs in his curriculum were he not still nervous as to the possibility of danger to himself of criticism of this kind

The fact is that in this country the standard of conscientiousness among our teachers is exceedingly high, so that any undue or unfair bias in the teaching of any subject—whether history, scripture, or even current politics and economics—has been reduced to a minimum. We use the phrase ‘unfair bias’ because bias of a kind is always and inevitably present, in that it is the expression of the individuality of the teacher. To eliminate all bias from his teaching would be to eliminate all personality and life, as his general outlook is almost inevitably an important factor in his selection of what he teaches, and in the way in which he presents his subject-matter. Indeed, of all forms of bias probably the most important is that which is least obvious to ourselves, that is to say, the unconscious bias which is the result of all the influences—educational, economic, and otherwise—which have, together, helped to form in each one of us an outlook on life. ‘To attempt to eliminate this is as undesirable as it is impossible. An anaemic and invertebrate monstrosity is no model for an educationist; but the more we become conscious of our predispositions and preconceptions and propensities the more we are able to correct any distortion of our vision that may result. Indeed, we may say that consciousness of bias is largely its own corrective.’¹

Although an element of bias is present in the teaching of nearly every subject, the danger of undue bias is clearly most apt to arise when dealing with problems of the contemporary

¹ Mr Barratt Brown, *Journal of Adult Education*, October 1933

world—in modern history, in political theory, in public affairs, and in economics. Even here, however, most of the subject-matter is essentially descriptive in character—the body of generally accepted facts and aims in each case forming, at least in the more elementary stages with which a school is mainly concerned, a larger proportion of the whole than is sometimes realized by those whose attention has been caught by well-advertised controversies.

The danger of bias in these subjects is, of course, due to the fact that the teacher's emotions are almost always involved, and, with regard to some of the matters with which he is dealing, he may himself be an active propagandist in private life. Bias will inevitably be more likely to be present in the discussion of such topics as the origins of the war and the economic functions of the state than in dealing with a play of Shakespeare or with some remote period in history. The chief safeguard against the danger is that a teacher should be conscious of his own bias and so order his teaching as to encourage freedom of discussion of all points of view where controversial subjects are concerned. We shall deal more fully with this question later in the chapter.

II *Bias outside the School*

It must, however, be recognized that, if through fear of inculcating bias, knowledge of the modern world and of its conditions, facts, and problems are taboo to the child or young person in school or college, it by no means follows that he will be protected from the influence of far more exaggerated forms of bias from other sources. On the contrary, it will be remembered that the child, in common with the rest of the population, is subjected to a constant stream of the most pernicious and unfair forms of propaganda. We not only refer to the more obvious dangers of omissions and distortions which are found in the daily press, which shriek from hoardings, or which result from the proselytizing efforts of the many propagandist organizations which like to collect their followers young; but in addition we cannot but admit

that the atmosphere of the average home is, for the most part, such that only one set of ideas is advocated, whether in politics or economics. This means that the child's mind is anything but a blank slate, it has already been scored on—and generally in one direction only—long before he is asked to tackle controversial subjects at school. There is ample evidence that when children or young people are taught in school or college to apply scientific method to the discussion of these problems rather than to accept in an unquestioning manner what has been acquired by tradition or slogan, they fully appreciate the desirability of the dispassionate approach, and the need of understanding the points of view of others.

We suggest, then, that the boycott at school of subjects dealing with modern controversial questions necessarily carries with it the danger of sending children into the world with no defence against the baser forms of propaganda, and that to be fearful of a bias that may be acquired through the teacher is to strain at a gnat while we swallow a camel. In working out a curriculum best suited to the needs of training for citizenship in any given type of school, therefore, no subject should be excluded on the ground that it might possibly be open to biased treatment.

III *How to minimize Bias in Teaching*

Let us inquire further how the danger of undue bias in the school teacher can be minimized. As we stated before, the temptation must be honestly faced by the teacher, who must himself attempt to find out where his own bias lies. Such a teacher will encourage an atmosphere in his class which, once it has proceeded from mere description of facts to more controversial matters, will be that of argument rather than of dogmatism. He will himself distinguish opinion from fact and will train his pupils to exercise a healthy scepticism. He will set out different points of view. For example, when dealing with modern international questions, he will quote the standpoints of different writers and of different countries. In dealing with current events, he will take his material from

different sources, and will, for instance, point out the discrepancy in the treatment of the same topic by papers representing different party views. He must be careful to see that all available evidence is considered, his own bias must not be allowed to hinder his impartiality. He may in the end give his own summing up and judgement, taking care to show that this constitutes his own opinion, and that others may draw different conclusions from the same evidence.

A comparatively dispassionate approach may be difficult both to teacher and taught, but it will be generally agreed that the efforts a teacher makes to be conscious of and to allow for his own bias and to train his pupils to become conscious of theirs, will go far to bring about habits of independence of judgement and of intellectual integrity invaluable in enhancing the quality of the mass of public opinion. Different teachers will moreover have different standpoints.

It is true that for younger children, owing to their lack of background, discussions as elaborate as here suggested are not likely to be very fruitful. It is therefore advisable, and not difficult, for the teacher when taking junior forms to confine himself as far as possible to description, and to avoid controversial topics as far as possible.

IV *Is any 'Indoctrination' desirable?*

So far there will probably be general agreement. Next there arises a far more difficult question. Should there be any qualification of the vital principle we have been advocating, namely that in dealing with political and economic ideas the teacher's chief concern is to teach the child independence of judgement by giving him the material on which his judgement can be based, and showing him how to weigh up conflicting evidence?

At first sight many may answer 'No'. But if this view be adopted we should, as regards social ethics, be following a very different principle from that accepted in teaching the ethics of individual behaviour. Here we do not hesitate to dogmatize in certain fundamental tenets. We endeavour to

teach our children quite categorically and as ultimate values, the need to be unselfish, honest, and brave. Are there not corresponding social qualities we are justified in demanding from the citizens of a democracy? And is there not a body of beliefs on which our own democratic state, and our forms both of government and of civilization are based, and which not more than a very small proportion of the population would wish to question?

It will be generally admitted that there are such social qualities and that there is such a faith, and that it is these qualities and this faith that are the distinguishing characteristics of a democracy, as opposed to a dictatorship, and of a civilized community, as opposed to a state of barbarism.

We find ourselves, therefore, in an apparently inconsistent position. We ask first that teaching in connexion with political and economic questions should be as unbiased as the teacher can make it—that children and young people should be encouraged to be completely independent in judgement. We now turn round and point out that inevitably we must also demand a certain amount of ‘indoctrination’—so much less in degree, indeed, than is required by the authoritarian state as to constitute a difference in kind—but none the less quite specific and definite

V. *What may be advocated?*

What, then, are the main headings of the principles and values which the citizens of a democratic community should be encouraged to accept? It is beyond our scope to enter the realm of political philosophy, but we would suggest that the minimum would include the following: the belief in the value of individual human personality, the belief in liberty; in freedom of speech and of criticism, and in freedom of action carried up to the point at which it begins to clash with that of others; the belief that an agreed body of law must be the means by which disputes should be settled, both between individuals and between nations; and further, that changes in the existing state of affairs must be brought about by means of criticism, persuasion, argument, and

reason, rather than by violence and force; the belief that the citizen of a democracy must feel active and personal responsibility for its good government, and that he must be prepared to sacrifice time and to use his mind in the service of the various concentric communities—local, national, and world-wide—to which he belongs. These—and no doubt others—are values which are accepted by the overwhelming majority of our population.

We are not proposing that teachers should be exposed to any kind of test as to their political views, nor that they should necessarily ever employ dogmatic method in their teaching. But we are confident that ninety-nine per cent. of the teachers, as of any other section of the population, would in fact accept, consciously or unconsciously, a belief in the main principles underlying the democratic faith, and would be prepared to hand on that faith to their pupils. For a teacher to hold up definitely as admirable the doctrines of liberty, of reason, and of love of our fellows, on which both our constitution and the moral standards of the community are ultimately based, should not lay him open to any charge of bias or of undue indoctrination. Is it not rather a case of, 'Whatsoever things are lovely, whatsoever things are of good report, if there be any virtue, and if there be any praise, think on these things'?

CHAPTER 4

THE MORAL APPROACH

By EVA M. HUBBACK, M.A.

THE fundamental problem in training for citizenship in a democratic state is how to help develop in every individual the motive force which will stir him to accept the responsibilities of active citizenship. If we fail in this moral problem no amount of intellectual training will in itself create good citizens.

How then can we, by means of education, encourage those emotions, values, or 'sentiments'—as the psychologist calls them—which the great majority of our fellow citizens feel should form the basis of good social, as of good individual relationships—the love of truth, the love of freedom—based on respect for the individuality of other persons—the desire to serve one's fellow men?

If the contribution of the school appears to be dwelt on unduly in this chapter it is not because the fact is overlooked that the child or young person is influenced by the whole of his environment—his home, his friends and fellow workers, his Church, the press, the cinema, &c. The influence of the school is, however, in this book our particular concern. It is, moreover, of the utmost importance in itself, on account of the fact that so large a part of life at the most impressionable ages is spent in some kind of educational institution. Further, as school life becomes longer it is increasingly to the school that we must look for the formation of habits, and of the power to take responsibility which in earlier times were, for craft workers at any rate, frequently contributed to at an early age through the discipline of the workshop. The matter is not a simple one, for as Sir Michael Sadler points out, 'the growth of a good character is a complex process, involving the right direction of sentiment, the bracing of the will, and the clear intellectual apprehension of an ideal of duty. For our guidance in such a gradual and delicate process no single formula can suffice' ¹

¹ Introduction to *Moral Instruction and Training in Schools*

The opportunities which arise in the course of school life for the consideration of fine civic and social ideals can be approached either from the religious or from the humanist point of view. The religious life of the school, as expressed in daily prayers, in the chapel, and in the scripture lesson, or as experienced in contacts with individual children, offers an opportunity to those heads of schools and others who derive their conception of the love of man from the love of God. These remember that the injunction 'Thou shalt love the Lord thy God' is followed by 'Thou shalt love thy neighbour as thyself', and they regard their faith in democracy as a practical expression of the value of individual personality insisted on by their religion. This derivation of the sense of civic duty from a religious faith gives to the performance of these duties a sanction and force which, properly directed, should form in the young people who hold such a faith a source of inspiration throughout life.

The humanist approach, based on the ideal of the brotherhood of man, makes in its turn a strong appeal and has its own imperative moral sanctions. Civilization itself is regarded as the growth of the recognition of the need to bring into public affairs the highest standards of individual morality, to help one's fellows and to relieve suffering. To help to create a community in which the good life shall be available for all, and in which each individual may be given the opportunity to work towards the attainment of truth, goodness, and beauty, forms an ideal and a goal which demands great and abiding qualities from those who strive for its realization.

I *The Part Played by the Teacher*

✓The rôle played by the personality and the outlook of the individual teacher has pride of place and its value can hardly be exaggerated. ✓The fact that a teacher cares intensely for the welfare of the community and possesses the moral force that comes from clearly apprehended and vigorously expressed ideals of freedom, truth, and public service goes a long way in itself towards arousing similar emotions and

stimulating a similar sense of values in his pupils. There are probably few of those now actively concerned with public affairs who at some time have not been made aware of the needs of their fellow men, or have not been inspired to fight for liberty by the example of some one—often a teacher—whose ideals and whose efforts to achieve those ideals have excited their admiration, for a teacher who wishes to do so finds endless opportunities both in the classroom and outside—explicitly and implicitly—of expressing a high conception of citizenship and of showing the need for the individual citizen to give something back to the community in return for all that he gains from it.

In most cases the key to the position lies in the nature of the values held by the head of the school. If he does not hold his ideals sincerely, or if they are given by him only a secondary place, then he will fail to convey them to others, in any case they will always make themselves felt more through the force of example than through argument. He will thus make his influence felt, not by imposing his own views on the school community, but by being true to them himself.

As with the head, so with the staff. He must allow his staff the same freedom as himself and their influence in turn will make itself felt—by example more than by precept. In some cases their values will be or may become identical with those of the head, and there will be a considerable gain in driving force and unity. In others they will be somewhat different, and there may be an even greater gain, for there will be less risk of a narrow outlook in the school.

In order to increase the number of teachers interested in the problems of citizenship, both actual and ideal, it is vitally important to offer both to students while they are in training, and to teachers who are at work, every possible opportunity for taking an active interest or playing a part in the world outside the school. There is a marked difference among both schools and individuals in this respect, in some cases we find a strong and valuable connexion between the school staff and the life of the town or district, which in others, especially in

the larger cities, is entirely lacking. Such a connexion by no means necessarily involves active participation by practising teachers in party politics, an extremely controversial subject on which no general ruling is possible.

It may be argued that at present a keen civic consciousness is not yet adequately developed among large numbers of teachers, but we wish to stress the importance of each head ensuring that his staff includes at least some who have an abiding interest in public affairs. Moreover, efforts are already being widely made in the more progressive training colleges and in many schools to encourage this consciousness and to give some knowledge of the modern social and political problems and of their background; and this will increasingly be reflected in the classroom and in the development of the children.

II. *Indirect Training. The Life of the School*

It follows that the efforts of any individual teacher, whether head of the school or a member of the staff, must not be isolated. They must find an appropriate setting in the whole life and tone of the school, the activities of which must be deliberately planned and organized to develop the qualities which lead to good citizenship. To live, work, and play in a community which has itself high social ideals, in which through setting up freedom as an ideal the child learns gradually and easily that freedom implies restraint and that liberty can only realize itself in a community through the willingness of the members to make sacrifices for it, constitutes a vital form of preparation for citizenship in later life. No training for citizenship can be equal to that gained by living in a community of this kind. How substantial this contribution is depends, naturally, upon the particular school itself—on its tone, on the skill with which its institutions are framed, on the scope they give for the exercise of initiative, and on the degree of freedom allowed and the kind of self-government that is encouraged.

There are few schools which do not consciously strive so to

develop the character of their pupils that the individual may be worthy of freedom and capable of self-control. Varying experiments as to the extent to which freedom can be allowed, both in the classroom and outside, have for some time been carried out in many different types of school and will be familiar to most readers. Loyalty to the school community and the growth of its corporate life is nearly universally encouraged, the development of the team spirit in games is widespread, and efforts are made in many schools to extend this spirit to the classroom by means of the substitution of co-operative or group methods of work for the older competitive methods which only aimed at individual achievement.

A sense of responsibility for the welfare of the school, some measure of self-sacrifice, and the power of leadership is demanded everywhere from prefects and monitors; moreover, it is now being increasingly realized that the opportunity to exercise responsibility and to serve by holding school offices must not be limited to a few born leaders but must be extended to the rank and file of ordinary children. A useful example of practical training is found where the pupils themselves play at least some part in the election of candidates for certain school offices. The search for the right kind of leaders in school is an experience which should prove useful later in the selection of leaders and candidates for civic and political offices.

III *Direct Training*

These and kindred influences are immensely valuable in training for citizenship, but this indirect contribution which the corporate life of the school can make within its own walls though great, is not in itself sufficient. It is not true that school loyalty will develop automatically into love of the bigger community of district or state, or by itself will give the child an understanding of those of his own countrymen whose circumstances or whose views he does not share and a sympathy with nations other than his own. The fact that the loyalty which any particular institution succeeds in arousing often remains 'canalized' and is not carried over or 'trans-

ferred' later to the community is evident from the number of adult citizens who though uncritically loyal to their own small group are indifferent to the needs of other groups, blind to the inter-relation of different sections of their own nation or of different nations, and unready to devote their time or even their thought to the community

It is of vital importance therefore that systematic efforts should be made in school to make conscious this 'transfer' of loyalty and to encourage young people to appreciate that their responsibilities to the school should be regarded not merely as important in themselves, but also as a preparation for the civic duties which the citizen of a democratic state will be called on to carry out in later life.

How can we encourage this broadening out, this 'transfer' of loyalties from the life of the school to that of the world outside? The encouragement of concurrent loyalties to a number of overlapping groups in a school—a team, a class, or a school society—would appear to be a better training for this purpose than the concentration of loyalty on one object only, such as a house or team. The need for using the fighting spirit normally aroused by a small group loyalty as a means to fight generally accepted social evils can be emphasized in many different ways. For instance, in the teaching of science it can be shown that the increase of knowledge is often the work of a team composed of many different nationalities, whose members, though perhaps unknown to one another, have been engaged on some common task, such as fighting against ignorance or disease.

IV. *Outside Activities*

Many other opportunities occur in the class and school life of arousing a direct sense of civic and social responsibility. School societies can be used to discuss social, economic, and political problems, though, as is shown in later chapters, these must be supplemented by classroom study if they are to form a contribution of any value towards intellectual training for citizenship.

✓ School visits to local institutions can either quicken a sense of pride or, as in the case of expeditions to slum areas, can kindle a righteous indignation. The more ambitious school journey to other parts of the country gives not only familiarity with our national heritage of hills, seas, and islands, or with fresh towns and villages, but by widening knowledge stimulates also a sense of sympathy with those who live under different conditions, and who are moved by different ideals and ideas. The rarer but extremely valuable journeys abroad are calculated to do more, perhaps, than any other means to arouse an interest in and understanding of other nations. The recent visits of public schoolboys to areas of the Manchester slums, the camping expeditions of a town grammar school to some beautiful part of the country, holidays spent in international camps abroad, scholarship schemes to encourage travel, &c., all show the possibilities of these aspects of training for citizenship.

Other forms of activity can also make their contributions. The Scout and Guide movements have given an admirable lead in practical methods of training in citizenship—methods which appeal to the corporate spirit and youthful idealism of their members. Though the need for school missions may be regretted by some as evidence of too unequal a social order, still it will be generally agreed that these can be of great value in the opportunities they offer for closer contact and greater mutual understanding between different sections of the community. Active co-operation from those who are willing to make a local survey can do much to make young people conscious of the characteristics and needs of their own district and inevitably encourages an interest in local affairs.

Readers will call to their minds many other examples of active citizenship. One example which we ourselves have recently seen is that of a small rural elementary school in which the headmaster collected together all those in the village over ten years old who were prepared to help in the erection of a large wooden hut which was designed to serve as a centre for the pursuit of craft work and other hobbies for all at the end of the day's work.

V. *The Classroom*

Most teachers will agree that many—perhaps the majority—of the subjects of the curriculum can be used as a point of departure for dealing with the ethical aspects of citizenship. Thus history provides the story of the growth of man's moral stature through the ages and of the lives of individual men and women who have contributed in an infinite variety of ways to the building up of the world of to-day, the time is past when history related only to diplomacy and wars, and when heroes were admired and respected for physical courage or military prowess alone, honour is now given as well to social reformers, to scientific investigators and to public-spirited statesmen and other heroes of peace. Just as the study of history quickens an interest in and establishes standards of value with regard to other times, so does geography taught in its 'human aspects' stimulate an understanding of other countries, a sympathy with the lives and ideals of other races, and some conception of what is meant by 'citizenship of the world'. In the study of the Bible, and in that of much fine literature—whether our own or that of other nations, ancient or modern—are found high ideals expressed in a beauty of form which makes direct appeal to the heart. The study of science and an appreciation of scientific method forms the starting-point for the disinterested search after truth and stimulates the valuable habit of facing facts.

But the part which may be played by individual subjects as ethical training grounds for citizenship cannot be dissociated from their contribution to the necessary intellectual training, a matter which is dealt with in later chapters to which we must refer readers for a fuller treatment than is possible here.

There are, we know, some teachers who consider that direct moral training in citizenship by means of the subjects here suggested or otherwise is doomed to failure owing to the apparently instinctive reaction of the young against exhortation of any kind. But this natural reluctance to appear priggish, on the part of both teacher and taught, may result

in a failure to face moral issues, whether individual or social. There is also no doubt that young people are quick to respond to idealism in any form, and are intensely interested in problems of conduct. It is for these reasons that we advocate that definite opportunities should be made in every school for discussing social and civic values, ideals, and issues as an aid to developing a quickened moral awareness in public affairs, instead of relying entirely on the assumption—certainly not proved—that this can be picked up indirectly through the life of the school.)

Both methods then are necessary: moral training through the life of the school and moral instruction through specific discussion. Sir Michael Sadler sums up admirably the roles played by the two methods respectively:

‘Moral training aims at giving good habits: moral instruction at imparting moral ideas. Moral training is secured by watchful care over conduct; by intimacy with good example, by wisely ordered physical discipline, by a due measure of organized school games, by the good influences in the corporate life of the school, by the responsibilities of self-government; and by the effect of honest intellectual work upon the moral outlook and judgment. Moral instruction aims definitely at furnishing ideas which may help in giving a right direction to conduct. It may indeed be incidental; or it may be allusive, or it may be in the form of a parable, or of an historical example, or of an illustration from poetry or fiction. It may appeal to the religious sanction as well as to the personal and social sanctions, or to the two latter alone. But however masked it may be in its incidence, it must, in so far as it is moral instruction, be direct.’¹

By these means we can perhaps help to create in the general body of citizens a standard of public morality at least as high as that now exacted in questions related to individual morality, and further a realization of the truth of Pericles’ dictum that a citizen who plays no part in public affairs is not ‘quiet’, but ‘useless’.

¹ Introduction to *Moral Instruction and Training in Schools*.

II. METHODS

CHAPTER 5

HISTORY

FOREWORD

By DR G. P. GOOCH, M.A.

EVERY country needs the best citizens it can produce, for, as the old saying goes, it is men, not walls, that make a city. And citizenship, like everything else, requires to be taught and learned. In autocracies the dictator shoulders the ultimate responsibilities, in countries like our own, which retain the priceless blessings of liberty, every citizen counts. 'Our Social Heritage', to adopt the title of a well-known work by Graham Wallas, provides the framework of the world into which we are born, but as we grow to manhood a thousand contemporary influences, conscious and unconscious, play upon us. The impact of history varies with the atmosphere of our home, our intellectual bent, the character of our school. But it is never entirely negligible, and its importance waxes from year to year with the growth of our understanding of the past. For the vision of history has changed in the last hundred years not less than the face of science and the shape of politics.

History is the record and interpretation of the life of humanity, the making of civilization, the thrilling drama of the ascent of man. There are a hundred ways of teaching it; but we are wasting our time if we fail to present this mighty theme as a single story and a living chain in which every actor plays his part, every event, every movement has its place. A teacher with knowledge and imagination should be able to strike fire from his class as he recalls the aspirations, the failures, the achievements of man throughout the ages, from the dim beginnings of time to the full light of day. As the mind of the pupil slowly expands, he grasps the fact that he is the heir of all the ages, the fortunate inheritor of the experi-

ence, the inventions and the triumphs of a million years. For civilization as we know it was impossible till the foundations had been laid by our savage and semi-savage ancestors.

The realization that history is nothing less than the story of our ascent from the drab level of animals to the richly coloured world into which we are born suggests that we must try to deserve what we have inherited. 'Here and here has England helped me, how can I help England, say?' We may begin with Browning's question, but we must advance to the recognition of a wider debt. How much each one of us is taking out of the pool! What shall we, what can we, put into it? Our civilization is a going concern, but it does not run by itself. It is infinitely easier to destroy than it was to build. Here is a task to appeal to the generous sentiments, the romantic instinct, the love of team-work, the constructive energies of youth—to keep this marvellous structure in repair, to adapt it to the growing needs of a changing world, to achieve 'the good life' for an ever greater number of its inhabitants. 'Man', declared Goethe in a bold phrase, 'can do the impossible.' Assuredly he does his best when most is demanded of him, and it is the privilege of the teacher to issue the challenge.

No members of a great profession have heavier responsibilities or a nobler chance of service to mankind than the teachers of history. Much is rightly asked of them, for the fashioning of our future rulers is largely in their hands. Wide knowledge is required, and vivid imagination, an instinctive understanding of youth, a belief in human nature that never falters or fails. Yet in some ways their task is easier than it used to be. History is at last taken seriously and properly understood, the text-books have changed out of recognition; science has increased the interest of life; the War and its consequences have turned us all into politicians and economists; the readiness for service and sacrifice is greater in times of danger and distress than when the running is good. Our educational system improves from year to year, and we are at last in sight of the raising of the school age. The teacher of history who knows his business is training British

citizens—and citizens of the world—all the time. Man does not live by bread alone, and there is a fund of idealism in human nature on which we can draw without stint. Let us aid and encourage the instructors in our schools to rise to the height of their noble calling. The self-governing institutions which are our glory and our pride can only be maintained by an unceasing supply of citizens who are worthy of them. To make such men and women is the most urgent of our national tasks.

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CHAPTER 5

HISTORY

By PHYLLIS DOYLE, M. A.

Senior Lecturer in History, Avery Hill Training College

The Value of History as a Training for Citizenship

IT is essential to-day to realize the strength of history in formulating opinion. Viscount Morley asserted over twenty years ago that 'democracy . . . means government working directly through public opinion' If this is true, then public opinion must be competent to judge the issues of government and the ordinary citizen be placed by his education and his activities in a position to shoulder the responsibilities imposed upon him by a democratic state. The teaching of history can be used to emphasize these responsibilities and at the same time to give such a background to present-day events that they gain a perspective that indirectly establishes a sense of values in the mind of the student. All civilizations pass on their traditions of the past to the rising generation, not merely as an intellectual exercise but rather as the mould into which the young life must flow if it is to continue with the standards and values which the foregoing generations have struggled for and achieved. The plea here is for vital history explaining the present, not for a study of the past so detached from anything known to the young person that it is soon wiped from his memory by other more interesting matters. That there are dangers in this mode of presenting history no one will deny. The authoritarian states abroad particularly realize how important is the story of the past in the formulation of present-day values and of the attitude of the citizen to his state. For they know that the authority of the past is very weighty. History represents the actual experience of men. It shows the struggle for ideals and the practical limits which circumstance sets to those ideals. It reveals the possibilities of personal

courage and determination. It is no dream. It carries the force of example. It reveals men in action in society, not as fiction or drama or art does, but set within the rigid limits of circumstances which force, mould, and develop the innate possibilities of individuals and communities. The study of history is a potent force in the development of the young citizen.

Civic Qualities Developed

In dealing thus with a past that reveals the botched and bungled masses of humanity struggling to live in some form of harmony together, the young citizen may develop certain faculties of high civic value. The very nature of historical inquiry forces even on the young a realization that evidence is essential before a judgement can be wisely formed. This evidence must be sifted to ensure its reliability. The young citizen is thus trained in powers of discrimination. Moreover, he sees that the strongest motive is often unexpressed. It is assumed. This throws the young person from a criticism of outward actions on to a study of motives. He may here realize that there is a large and vital part of life which is never articulated but in political and personal crises may be the most potent factor. In trying to estimate the relative importance of motives, he is compelled to make judgements. The sense of perspective given to the present by placing it in relation to the past involves also, if it does not actually create, a sense of values. To see present-day life as the result of a long process of evolution is to enhance its value, and those things which have survived gain in importance by the mere fact of their survival. Moreover, the individual citizen sees himself as the result of this process and may thus acquire a sense of his relation and his responsibility to the community to which he owes so much. His ideals too are formed largely by what has been held up for his admiration and what decried in the life of his ancestors, whether particular or communal. The everyday things of to-day are seen to be the product of much effort from yesterday and their value is consequently enhanced. A spirit of tolerance too can be

obtained. Plunge the young person of 16 or 17 into the conflicting debates in Parliament over any of the crucial questions in the nineteenth century in Britain, and it is impossible not to realize that both sides felt justified in their actions, that there may be situations in which both sides are partially right. This realization should be of educational value to the young citizen of a democratic state, showing him the importance of discussion and of constructive criticism, whilst inculcating in him a respect for an opposite point of view.

It is almost impossible to initiate the young citizen into the emotional and intellectual intricacies of the present political and social situation into which he is emerging without an explanation from the past. History is here seen as an introduction at second-hand to life. Herein lies its value. It is detached from the confusion of present-day events, personalities can be seen in perspective operating on the life of the community and their influence more accurately estimated. The habits of criticism, discrimination, and tolerance can be exercised in a sphere which has a double advantage. The pupil is concerned with real people. He deals with actions that are completed and hence some final conclusion about them can be attempted. That detachment is unattainable in the present. But that habit of detachment is the beginning of the use of reasoning faculties on situations that are complicated by emotional forces. That habit of a reasonable understanding of an emotional situation is one well worth developing within the rising generation in a democracy where all are expected to participate in the art of ruling themselves and others.

Dangers and Difficulties

If, then, the study of history has so much civic virtue in it, is it not a dangerous weapon to be used in schools? No one will deny this, nor the pertinent accusation that much that has just been said suggests that the history advocated here has a bias. This bias is towards a particular conception of society, i.e. the democratic state. Every teacher of history

knows that in the selection of the matter to be presented to their pupils some pruning of the past must take place. The mere arrangement of a syllabus implies this. Teachers of history know well that they are not chroniclers reciting for their pupils all and every occurrence; they select, they emphasize, they interpret. On what basis? The basis of selection varies with the interest of the teacher: the artistic teacher will deal more thoroughly with the artistic happenings of the past, the scientist with the scientific. This is an unconscious and inevitable bias from which no one can escape. But is it desirable consciously to stress an aspect? That is the more pertinent objection. No syllabus is really without a bias. Many members of this Association suggest that more attention should be paid to the well-known maxim of interpreting the present by the past. To do this, the basis of selection must be the present, for it is that which one wishes to interpret, to understand more fully. In modern Britain the state in theory is a democracy. The past then should be so selected as to give a greater understanding of the reason for that development, for its overthrow in other countries. There is no suggestion here that given the evidence the young people will necessarily desire democracy. They may reject it, but reject it with considered judgement. There is a hope that they will find it desirable. But there is no suggestion that they should be forced to accept the standards revealed. On the contrary, the teaching of history with a view to a fuller understanding of the present raises highly controversial questions amongst the pupils. In attempting to discuss these and to come to some solution the young people are trained to use their faculties of criticism and judgement and only to accept authority in so far as it appears reasonable to them. Even whilst they may reject certain standards, they are the whole time accepting the responsibility of making that rejection. They are in fact becoming intelligent and responsible citizens. Bias therefore should not necessarily imply authority. Bias rather means here the inevitability of selection, and that selection being made in terms of the present, it involves the readiness to present controversial issues,

But if selection is to be made in terms of the present, where is one to begin? This too is a serious difficulty. Two obstacles appear at once: the vastness of the field to be surveyed, the ignorance on the part of the teacher of the intricacies of present-day complex organizations. The history specialist cannot be expected to know both present and past events and structure of society in detail. But most teachers of history do know fairly intimately some aspect of present-day life, such as economic organization, or international relations, or constitutional issues. These should form the first step towards the making of the selection. The principles underlying the second difficulty, i.e. the surveying of so vast a field, will be more fully discussed in the description of actual syllabuses suggested.

There is another problem. The history teacher is always handicapped by having to interpret adult actions to children in terms that they will comprehend. Can it not be argued that civics and its responsibilities are too complex a subject to be attempted with young people; that there will be a danger of over-simplification of the matter so that the young person will emerge from school fancying that he knows and has prejudged all the controversial questions of his day? This objection is surely a general one to all education. It is hardly tenable unless one denies the advisability of allowing young people to know anything at all until they are mature. We must as educationists place the material into the crucible of the untutored minds of the young, for they are in a few years to carry on our work and so for a space we must expect their crude judgements. But such inevitable immaturity which permeates their treatment of all subjects does not seem a real objection to letting them become aware that many problems exist and the sooner they begin to discuss them the better. It is not necessary to over-simplify. Much can be admitted as beyond our powers of solution. Nor is it undesirable that the young pupil should spend some time merely arguing in circles, or letting off 'hot air'. This has great educational value, as after a short while the more critical minds get tired of 'hot air' and desire to get to grips

with the problems more closely. This is particularly true of the more mature people between 17½ and 18. This is a salutary conclusion to which to get the young person before he leaves school.

Finally, there is the problem of examinations. Can history really be taught as closely related to the present under the present system of examinations? I think so. Much can be done, and is being done, within the scope of the present syllabuses to teach history vitally. In many schools the examination becomes an incident in, and not the purpose of, the course. Moreover, it is possible, if not easy, to obtain adaptations to syllabuses. Many examining boards would welcome fresh suggestions, and are even willing to countenance experiment. Given the will then amongst teachers the way can be found without insurmountable obstacles.

Yet despite these dangers inherent in the teaching of history, indeed because of them, the teaching of history remains a formidable and potent instrument for the formulation of public opinion. How can the adults of a democratic society present the story of the past to the rising generation that they may see their society in perspective, see it on a broad basis, realize its structure, undertake their responsibilities in the shaping of its future destiny? How can the teachers of history fulfil this grave responsibility of sketching in a background which at the same time creates a system of values in the child's mind? For the time is past when the historian in the school can aim at being only the antiquarian, and the history teacher lightly and pleasantly introduce the young to the past as a collection of interesting fossils. On every side the past is being used as a justification of present-day action. For the teachers in this country to maintain their erstwhile aloofness to the potentialities of the teaching of history would not exonerate them from responsibility. For neutrality in this sphere now amounts to negation. To refuse to teach history vitally nowadays is to create in the child's mind a notion that history is fossilized and unrelated to the present. He then dismisses it as an uninteresting and irrelevant subject. He forgets it as quickly as possible. He is

ready to receive from other sources the story of the past vividly told to him. He has no knowledge with which to criticize and judge these lively stories. For his knowledge of history has long since died from his memory. So he gets his story of the past from somewhere, and he is without a sense of perspective or remembered knowledge with which he can gain a balanced judgement. The past carries authority and public opinion bows before it. Where, then, is democracy?

If history and citizenship are so indissolubly connected how best can they be taught in the schools to prepare the citizen for his future responsibilities? I should like to treat this problem under two main headings. Citizenship taught indirectly through the history courses proper, and citizenship taught directly but treated historically.

1. CITIZENSHIP TAUGHT INDIRECTLY THROUGH HISTORY

Under this heading I should like to divide the subject again into two syllabuses and presentation

A. Syllabuses

Energetic and determined teachers have in many cases already adopted syllabuses for the secondary schools that are in keeping with the needs of their pupils. Let us examine the principles underlying these changes. The drawing up of a syllabus is the first pruning of the past, the first effort to select the important elements for presentation to the young. It emphasizes particular aspects of the past as nothing else does. It sets the theme behind the particular lessons. Every teacher has his own method of making this selection, but I would suggest here that certain fundamental principles, essential in the development of the civic sense, should not be lost sight of. The syllabus should be based on the present-day interests of the pupil. This method is advocated by several history educationists to-day. Let me here refer to Mr J J Bell's series of history books for young children aged 8 to 12 (an incomplete series that is being brought up

to higher forms), to Commander King-Hall's methods of teaching history backwards, to the recent memoranda on the teaching of history in elementary schools published by the L C C which has a discussion on these lines in the second memorandum, to a series of invaluable books published by Routledge on everyday things like printing, writing, time, &c. All these educationists endeavour to start with the child's interest and work outwards and backwards from that. This develops what Mr Bell describes as the historical attitude. The child becomes aware that everything has its past, an attitude not generally developed in the history course, where the past as a rule appears remote from the present and so not as an explanation of it, but as a rather burdensome appendage of information which has to be learnt by heart. This sense of the importance of origins is very valuable in the training of a young citizen. It inculcates the habit of inquiring first into how a thing happened instead of entering into immediate judgement. A sense of proportion is instilled. A desire to probe into causes before forming judgements is awakened.

Let me give some examples of the type of syllabuses I mean.

I History in Terms of the Child's Own Environment

(a) Everyday Things (age 8-11).

(b) Local History (age 11-14)

(c) National and International History (age 14-18).

(a) *Everyday Things (age 8-11)* In the first school years the courses can be on the history of such activities as writing, making of books, making of tools, and on everyday things, such as pepper, salt, bacon, wool, bread, &c. The history of these subjects brings pupils into contact with the old civilizations from which ours has sprung and to which we are directly indebted. It gives a sense of the co-operation of mankind in the endeavour to conquer nature and to live the best life possible. It reveals to the child that he is a citizen of the world in a very real sense.

(b) *Local History (age 11-14)* At about eleven or twelve the pupil can be introduced to a more specific study of his locality.

This gives him a sense of his own importance in the scheme of things and lays the foundation of the feeling that his own efforts are needed in the structure of his society. His local heroes have shaped their destiny, why not he? By reducing the sphere of history to comprehensible limits the young citizen begins to feel effective and needed. Local history lays the foundations for an interest in local problems. These should be analysed in terms of local services and the historical background supplied concurrently, e.g. *Public Health*—who cares for it to-day? How are we responsible, individually, and as a community? Then the history of the growth of science and its raising of standards, and finally the machinery with which this is made effective. And so with all the other services. This is keenly appreciated by children over 12.

(c) *National and International History (age 14-18)* The next course should spread out again in order to build on the widening interests of the young adolescent. The history of local industries involves the industrial revolution, trade-union movements, social problems arising therefrom. The endeavour to deal with these problems locally and nationally leads to a study of central institutions such as Parliament, and the attempt to make regulations effective brings the pupil to the study of the judiciary and the inspectorate. As the pupil gets older these problems can be taken in a wider perspective, and Britain can be seen reacting to the spread of her markets, e.g. in the development of her Empire, and its effect on her relations with other nations. Wars, treaties, conferences, the development of the League of Nations follow as a natural consequence on the activities that the young pupil has seen developing in the first instance within the range of his home, then passing imperceptibly to a world range. The material arranged thus as a background of the child's own activities and his surroundings compels attention to the present as well as to the past. It puts everyday contemporary action into its complex setting as part of a series of actions. Inevitably the responsibility of one's action is emphasized. Moreover, the arrangement of syllabuses from the universal heritage of ancient civilizations to the very local ones of local history and then outwards again to modern national and international relations gives the child as he develops a sense of his debt to all and sundry for the every-day things that make life fuller, the sense of the opportunity and effectiveness of local and individual effort, and finally the sense of responsibility inherent in realizing oneself as part of so complex a system as modern civilization.

II. *Emphasizing Particular Aspects of Citizenship, e.g. Order and World Co-operation*

By MICHAEL STEWART, M A¹

World History To children up to nine or ten years of age a picture of human history from the earliest times can be presented through folk-lore. These stories illustrate the rise of mankind through hunting, pastoral, farming, and urban stages. They show man's conquest of hunger, cold, wolves, distance, and finally of his greatest enemy, disorder. If the stories are drawn from the mythologies of as many nations as possible, the fact is emphasized that all sections of humanity have certain common problems which they should unite to solve.

With older children, world history may be treated in a more systematic manner. When world history rather than British history is taught, the error is sometimes made of supposing that mere teaching about a remote period or region is sufficient to encourage a wide outlook. But the special purpose of world history is to bring out the contributions which each period and race have made to our present civilization, detailed accounts of, say, the institutions of ancient Assyria, will be of no use in the classroom unless they are related to this central idea.

We can show how the Mesopotamian civilizations gave us settlement, laws, and writing, how the Greeks were the pioneers in thought and aesthetics and political liberty—and how their great weakness, like that of present-day Europe, was disunion. The Romans offer one answer to the problem of disunion, the answer of domination. After the fall of the Roman Empire the nations of Europe in time contribute individualism and commercial progress. As European man conquers power and distance and discovers the rest of the world, the still unanswered problem of order becomes world-wide. This sketch, though very far from a complete view of the matter, is intended to suggest how the mass of facts in world history may be made manageable and helpful to the idea of world citizenship.

British History The majority of history teachers in this country are probably engaged in the teaching of British history from the year 1066 onwards. There are a number of aspects of this period, not always sufficiently appreciated, which give expression to the two ideas mentioned above.

¹ Coopers' Company's School.

In the medieval period the central government of the king is engaged in a constant struggle to establish order, and the prosperity of the country is determined by the extent of the central government's success, comparison between the reign of William the Conqueror and that of Stephen is a clear illustration. The difficulty of the king's task is twofold, he lacks the legal machinery for enforcing his will, and the sense of national, above local, loyalty, is imperfectly developed. This teaches a lesson that is apparent in many periods of history—that for the establishment of order, two things are necessary, the machinery and the will to work it.

In this period, also, the contemplation of the race, language, religion, and law of the English shows how closely they are knit to other nations. It should be possible to make this plain, even to young children, because the idea can be illustrated by concrete things and everyday affairs. The development of architecture shows how an art is enriched by international intercourse, the growth of the English language is a like example. The Church and the aristocracy derive their vigour largely from their international character.

In the sixteenth century the Tudor Government succeeds in creating the machinery for order, and the growth of invention and discovery promote a wider loyalty, consequently the problem of national order is in a large measure solved. It is often said that the spread of the use of gunpowder made this solution possible, it is equally true that it made it imperative. A War of the Roses waged mainly with firearms would have meant a destruction England could not have afforded, any more than the modern world can afford war waged with the latest weapons.

The seventeenth and eighteenth centuries present an interesting contrast. In the former lived some of the noblest characters in British history; in the latter the standard of both public and private morality is lowered. Yet the seventeenth century repeatedly proved itself incapable of ordered government, while the eighteenth was a century of power and achievement. Why? Because personal uprightness is not enough, because humanity requires of statesmen and citizens exactly that virtue which the seventeenth century lacked, willingness to work with people whose opinions do not in all respects resemble one's own.

The eighteenth century, like the sixteenth, is a period of discovery and colonization. The knowledge and skill of Europe is to be joined to the resources of the larger world. Yet this great

advance for mankind is made in a clumsy and brutal manner, with war and oppression, because there is no international law nor adequate sense of international morality. The wars which built up the British Empire are sometimes depicted as great achievements; in fact they are the measure of the inadequacy of eighteenth-century political ideas to the task before Europe. One well-known history text-book remarks, 'The rivalry of British and French in Canada could only be settled by the sword.' The modern teacher can scarcely leave the matter there, why only by the sword, except that nations were not ready to accept the idea of international law?

The French Revolution awakens Europe to the fact that social as well as international justice is a condition of peace. In the nineteenth century Britain sets to work to create the machinery of social justice, that is to say, an efficient and uncorrupt Civil Service. One of the dangers to liberty to-day is contempt for the formalism and slowness of the parliamentary machine. The social history of the nineteenth century shows how that machine is capable of adaptation to meet new economic needs, and it is on this flexibility that democratic government depends. There is to-day a belief that British people have a tradition of settling political differences without bloodshed. This tradition is barely a century old, and it owes its existence largely to the nineteenth-century improvement of the governmental machine.

The political history of nineteenth-century Europe may be seen as a search for a way of preserving peace among sovereign states. It is natural for British historians to regard the Battle of Waterloo as a great triumph, but it is well to notice that it does not solve but rather sets a problem. Napoleon's attempt to keep the peace, Roman fashion, had failed; he had declared that the only alternative was some kind of League of Nations. From his day to the present Europe has been searching for the right organization. We may say that in the nineteenth century there were two Europes—the Europe of scientists, artists, and social reformers, making European civilization and finding their work liable to constant interruption through the activities of the other Europe, the Europe of sovereign states and empires, periodically resorting to war because they cannot frame and accept international law.

It is the former of these two Europes which is liable to be neglected in the class-room. As a consequence of this neglect, war appears as the chief occupation of mankind, and the belief

that international order is a visionary's dream gains ground. It should be our task to show that it is the first Europe which is the living reality, and that the making of war is a drag on the achievements of mankind. Then the building of international order appears as a necessary task for civilization, comparable to the scientific achievements of the nineteenth century. The League of Nations can now take its place in the history syllabus, not dragged in as a concession to progressive opinion or the Board of Education, but as the latest and widest of the attempts since Waterloo to keep European and world civilization alive.

One of the chief methods of the Fascist and the war-monger is to appeal to the enthusiasm and desire for sacrifice which is to be found in many young people. If the teaching of history is to contribute to the making of civilized persons, we must stress not the restfulness of *peace*—not an attractive idea to a young zealot—but the value of *order* which makes possible the great achievements of human knowledge. History is a record both of achievement and of disorder, the study of it should encourage each generation to do its share in the establishment of order and the extension of man's dominion.

III *Factors in History*

Here the selection is made by an *analysis of civilization* in terms of certain factors which are vital to it. Thus the primary needs of food, warmth, and security are fulfilled by the activities of agriculture, industry, and government, then secondary needs such as desire for knowledge, for beauty, and for wisdom are fulfilled by science, art, and religion. Around these six factors the history teaching can be grouped. History is thus related to an activity that is comprehensible to the pupil to-day. The analysis is open to great variety and is adaptable to almost any age group, but the principle underlying it remains immutable, the past is used to interpret the present in an intelligible way.

IV *Economic History*

Suitable for age group 14-18, and *must* be taken parallel with a course on economics, otherwise the principle of selection is unintelligible

Primary Object to show by comparison and contrast the evolution of some of the outstanding problems in the modern world

Secondary Object to reveal the influence of economics on political and social development

English Economic History emphasizing the Development of *Trade and Commerce* from early times to to-day in three periods

Period I Medieval Trade and Commerce, 13th-15th Centuries

Special reference to be made to the following aspects

- (a) Methods of production, e g growth of guilds, the manor and monastery, the wool trade, &c
- (b) Methods of distribution, e g fairs and markets, transport, travel, trade routes
- (c) Social results, e g growth of towns, town life and organization, new fashions, new necessities, &c.

Period II Exploration and Colonization, 16th and 17th Centuries

Aim to show the expansion of markets and its results

- (a) Motives for exploration
- (b) The expansion of markets and the struggle for the New World
- (c) Results of struggle beginnings of Colonial Empire, production of better commodities, more intricate organization, emphasis on national unit, and reorientation of the balance of political power

Period III Industry and Commerce, 18th and 19th Centuries

Special reference to be made to the following aspects

- (a) Further expansion of markets, e g Colonial and world markets
- (b) Revolutions in methods of production, e g large-scale production and the consequent changes in organization
- (c) Revolutions in methods of transport and communications affecting the problem of distribution

(d) Results:

- (i) Political the struggle for national and imperial power.
- (ii) Economic labour and capital.
- (iii) Social raising of the standard of living and its consequences, problems of race

B. The Technique of Presentation

The common feature of these four syllabuses is the treatment of history mainly as a background of the present; it is important that the method of presenting the material in class should carry out this underlying principle. Here lies a great opportunity for the teaching of citizenship and its responsibilities. Whilst in the arrangement of the syllabuses the responsibility of selection lay with the teacher, in the actual lessons most of the responsibility of selection lies with the pupils. Here the pupil's observation of his surroundings, his ability to select what has had importance in the life of his community is developed. For this method of starting with the present involves a knowledge of the present, and the teacher quickly realizes in taking a history lesson this way how much has to be taught both of the present and of the past. The technique of these lessons is to develop the pupil's observation of the present by directing attention to some particular aspect of modern life, e.g. communication, and then having collected information on all types of communication to-day (which is valuable instruction in modern affairs), to return to the earliest evidence about the subject in the past, and by the end of the course bring the pupils back to the present.

Benefits of the System.

This method of teaching history will give the pupil in his school career a knowledge of the present, of the moulding of that present by the actions of past men, of the responsibility of the individual in relation to the society—local, national, and international—in which he lives. This sense of responsibility is made inescapable by the method of presentation and the arrangement of the syllabus, for both start and end with

something the pupil knows and uses, so the inevitable conclusion is forced upon his mind that he is part of a complex society and that he can, as people in the past have done, ordinary people like himself, play his part in affecting the destiny not only of his locality but also of his nation and the world itself. The time is then ripe to take a direct course on citizenship or public affairs.

Objections

But before entering on that subject I should like to meet some of the objections to this somewhat revolutionary attitude towards the teaching of history.

(1) It is objected that in order to develop a sense of citizenship the romance of history is forsworn. This is untrue. The telling of the story of the past is romantic or sordid according to the characters involved in the story. No one who tells the history of the growth of the British Empire as the economic urge for new markets can omit the glamour of the East, and the fortitude, endurance, and excitement of the pioneers in the West, nor the romance of the early explorers. Nor can the study of any locality fail to introduce the pupil to the romance of chivalry and the beauty of medieval architecture. These are but the variations on the themes, the real interest to the majority of people lies in the effect of these activities on our present mode of life. Only very few people have a truly antiquarian attitude to history where the life of the past is sufficient interest in itself. And in schools we are concerned with the education of the majority towards a fuller life with a realization of its responsibilities.

(2) Secondly, few history teachers are prepared to become involved in the intricacies of a system which threatens to destroy that sense of time which is essential to a sense of proportion. We are not advocating teaching history backwards, that is to say, taking sections to-day, then in 1800, then in 1700, &c., but rather history taught by comparison, that is to say, taking to-day and then going back to the origin of the object selected and then coming forward chronologically, pausing every now and then to remind the pupils that we are

looking for an explanation of the present. So at given times we can pause and compare the stage, say the fifteenth century, to which we have got, with to-day and then again with an earlier stage

2 CITIZENSHIP TAUGHT DIRECTLY BUT HISTORICALLY TREATED

I should like to make a plea here for connecting the teaching of citizenship at some time with its historical background. This background gives it balance and poise. It shows mistakes and sometimes reveals means of avoiding them in the future. Moreover, I strongly deprecate the teaching of a code of abstract rights and duties to young people so that theory and practice are insidiously divorced in their minds.

Here are some examples of this method of closely relating the teaching of citizenship and history.

Syllabuses

V. Educating Men to Govern

By K. C. BOSWELL, B.A.¹

In planning the lessons on this theme, the first thing to do is to take present-day conditions in our own country and decide what are the essentials for such an education. They may be detailed as follows

- (a) Learning how to discuss
- (b) Learning how to give and take, in other words, toleration
- (c) Learning how to give in to the will of the majority
- (d) Learning to make decisions, in other words, active participation in some sphere of the work of government
- (e) Learning to appreciate freedom in the widest sense

To summarize the above the object of educating men to govern is to build up a common will to live together and to solve the difficulties of so doing as peacefully and efficiently as possible.

The above points can be explained and illustrated very effectively from facts within the pupil's own experience, and it can be shown from our history what has been done in the past to assist their growth.

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Learning how to discuss It is suggested that the procedure might be along these lines: school activities are discussed, lessons are discussed, but discussion to be valuable must be orderly and with freedom for each to say (within limits) what he or she thinks. Similarly, democracy means government by talking and discussion, and so the same opportunities of learning to discuss must be available. At the present time such opportunities occur in Parliament, the press, on the public platform, in broadcasting, and in the hundred-and-one societies which exist for the promotion of this or that object.

Having thus started with things within the experience of the pupil, the next step is to show how in the past opportunities for discussion have been given, the difficulties which have had to be overcome, and the attacks which have been made on freedom of discussion. In these connexions reference can be made to:

- (a) Parliament—the great talking—origin, period of conflict in the seventeenth century, its triumph in the eighteenth century, and its place to-day as the airing-house of the nation's grievances
- (b) The work of the guilds in promoting discussion about matters affecting their welfare
- (c) Shire courts, Domesday Book, juries of Henry IV, and the coffee-houses of the seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries
- (d) The growth of the Press-Licensing Acts
- (e) The Six Acts of 1819.

Spirit of Toleration One of the consequences of all these opportunities for discussion has been the growth—a slow growth—of a realization that there is much to be said on both sides of a question and that compromise is very frequently the best solution to a problem that has been thoroughly discussed from every point of view. The work of this principle can be brought home to pupils by getting them to take sides and discuss as best they can some of the great issues of which they have read in their textbooks, e.g. Simon de Montfort and Henry III, would they have supported the Dissolution of the Monasteries, Cavalier or Puritan, Whig or Tory, Jacobite or Hanoverian, and so forth. The effect on the pupil, apart from obtaining a certain body of knowledge, will be to acquire an attitude of mind, a tolerance which will appreciate that all these great questions permit of a variety of points of view and that it is only by learning to see the other point of view that the best solutions are obtained. (Cicero's observation

—'He who knows only his own side of the case knows very little of that.') In this way the one-sidedness of all modern propaganda may be perceived and a greater readiness to study a question from all points of view inculcated

Giving in to the Will of the Majority This is a vital principle in a democratic system of government. Here again the starting-point can be school activities. (Who wants to do this and who that?), passing to local activities (Shall a new hall be built here or there?), and thence to the larger issues of public life in which, when a decision has been given, it is the duty of citizens to uphold it.

Historically, the theme can be treated by tracing the change from the cutting off of heads to their counting, from civil war to general elections, from impeachment to change of prime minister.

Making decisions The importance of decision-making in the development of a sense of responsibility in school life will be indicated by the duties of prefects, captains of games, &c. Then passing to the sphere of local activities, reference will be made to the activities of the various municipal, county, and rural authorities, all of which have to make decisions.

It is only by active participation in the work of local government that an insight into the problems of national government can be obtained. It is by having a healthy and active body of citizens in the localities that a sound critical faculty is trained and a nursery of statesmen and politicians maintained. The difference between democracies and dictatorships lies in this matter of making decisions.

Historically, reference can be made to all the various local institutions which have been kept alive throughout our history and in particular the work, unpaid, of the Elizabethan justices of the peace can be described.

Freedom An explanation of its meaning as applied to liberty of the person and speech, the maintenance of law and order, Habeas Corpus. Recall the deeds of Mr. Fiske, the Battersea bricklayer who helped to keep the King's Peace. Historically, emphasis will be laid on the principle of Rule of Law throughout our history as exemplified in Magna Carta, Petition, and Bill of Rights, &c. The dislike of arbitrary authority whether monarchical or military can be illustrated from Stuart times and the Commonwealth.

There in brief outline is the working of the 'Tracing History Backwards' principle. It can be applied to all kinds of topics.

Unemployment, machines, the Empire. Reinforced by judicious visits to places of historic interest, and encouragement to read more than one paper, and to appreciate the nature and character of the many local institutions with which the pupil comes in daily contact, it will provide a valuable method of linking up the present with the past, of emphasizing the continuity of our history, and of building up a sense of active rather than passive citizenship, which is the only hope of saving democracy from becoming the plaything of the modern weapons of mass suggestion and propaganda.

VI. *Elementary Political Structure*

This course could be taken between sixteen and seventeen years of age and should last either a year or eighteen months. It should come at the end of the school career running parallel with the widening of the young citizen's interest in historical and geographical questions. But it is a self-contained course and could be used as such. Here again the technique should be to start with activities familiar to the pupil or with ones which he will be called upon to perform. A comprehensive list could be made with the class which should include voting for your Member of Parliament, for your local council, sitting on a jury, witnessing at a case, paying taxes and rates, giving voluntary subscriptions to local charities, e.g. the hospital, church activities, the League of Nations, registration of birth, marriage, and death. From this as a foundation it is comparatively easy to build around these activities sufficient knowledge of the rights and duties of a citizen, his relation to the state, the obligations he has towards the state and society, the clash of loyalties involved, for example in paying taxes for armaments and voluntary subscriptions to the League of Nations Union for the prevention of arms; the relations between the local and central bodies illustrated by such examples as the provision of education, e.g. if you wish to raise or lower the school age who is responsible, who keeps the roads up on which you come to school, &c. In discussing the exercise of the vote for a Member of Parliament the whole question of the structure of parties and the power of the press is raised. Here it is obvious that the historical background plays an important part. Constitutional history as such should be kept back until this later stage, then a brief history of Parliament and of local authorities should be given as an explanation of their present-day powers,

functions, and procedure Whereas in the history course we should be aiming at 'This is what we are and why we are', in the citizenship course we should aim at 'This is what we do and why we do it and what more can we do?'

SUMMARY

Such teaching of history and citizenship should produce in the future citizen at the end of his school career some knowledge and appreciation of his own social order, of the world order, of his responsibilities and privileges, his rights and duties therein, an optimistic yet balanced view of the possibilities of the situation; an optimism that should be stressed, for here is the opportunity to link the enthusiasm of youth to the task of facing political and civic difficulties courageously and energetically, with a will and power to act with determination Only by an accurate knowledge and appreciation of the past efforts and successes of men, can the citizens of the future hope to build sturdily and in proportion the future state.

CHAPTER 6

GEOGRAPHY

By H J FLEURE, D SC

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[NOTE The present article is the outcome of co-operative efforts by Miss E M Coulthaid and Messrs H W Ogden and E J Orford, all experienced school-teachers, and Professors P M. Roxby and H J Fleure, to the last of whom has fallen the task of attempting to bring together the lines of thought suggested. It also owes much to the report by a committee of the Geographical Association, under the chairmanship of Mr E W Heaton, prepared (1934) for a Consultative Committee of the Board of Education for schools other than those under the Elementary Code]

Man and Environment

WHEREAS geography was seriously taught in very few sixth forms fifteen years ago, there are now some 1,300 pupils taking the complete subject on a level with others in the Higher School Certificate examination (*circa* 18 years of age), while large additional numbers take it as a subsidiary subject. At the School Certificate stage (*circa* 16 years of age), geography now ranks along with English, French, history, and mathematics as a 'big subject'

There is no need to argue at any length here that, among the main reasons for this remarkable development, is the widespread realization, from the events of our time, of the complex interrelations of peoples the world over and of the urgent need for some measure of vision of the world. Not only the events of the last generation, war, and the development of communications, with the reactions of fear involved in both, but also the scientific development of Darwinian thought has played its part; for it has brought out increasingly the fact that we should be wrong in stating that society results from the coming together of individuals. It is true, if still incomplete, to state that human individuality is essentially a social

product, in other words that society is a part of our primal heritage, which has given opportunity, however imperfectly and grudgingly, for the development of self-conscious individual persons, knowing good and evil, as the story of Eden puts it. Every society develops in relation to a particular environment, not by any means constant, and to understand a human society, its reactions to and its actions upon its environment, i.e. its *ecology*, must be studied. It is in large measure because geography has evolved in the direction of social ecology that it has won its large place in education in our time. But no society lives to itself, unless it be, perhaps, some savage remnant in an isolated spot, and social ecology must take account of the relations of social groups to one another, not in material things alone, but also in the field of thought; in ideals and aspirations as well as in achievement.

Inter-social Relationships

Until the web of regional relationships the world over becomes apparent and significant to the average citizen, there can be no real conviction of the need for world citizenship, and without that conviction and consciousness, the claims of national citizenship cannot be seen in their proper perspective and are easily exploited to the detriment of other peoples and of the cause of human progress as a whole. The pupils in schools must be trained to appreciate the world-wide web, and in this educational process geography, from the nature of its subject-matter and its point of view, can play a vitally important part. Almost inevitably, unless it is wilfully distorted, and to a large extent unconsciously, through its teaching and study comes the wider vision of unity in diversity, accompanied by growth of understanding of the value of the past, the significance of the *genius loci*, and of the greater value of the whole. Geography cannot of itself solve, for instance, the thorny problems of European frontier revision, national minorities, and trade relations, but it can give a conception of their setting and evolution in relation to various environments, and develop an attitude towards them that will give an atmo-

sphere favourable to their solution by wise statesmanship. To go farther afield, more important for the future of mankind than the economic development of Africa is the mental development of the African, but this development, no less than the material wealth of the continent, must be studied in its geographical milieu if conditions of mutual benefit to black and white are to be established. We have missed many opportunities because in the last decade of the nineteenth century, the greater part of Africa having become virtually an economic annexe of Europe, the average European view of African peoples was tinted by ideas of racial ascendancy. The collection, sifting, and interpretation of data bearing upon the present and future relations of African peoples to their habitats constitute a specially important and imperative field of geographical study at this present stage of the awakening of Africa. It is further necessary that the average citizen should have some conception of the significance of the East in the current of the world's life, of the character of the problems, arising out of their geographical conditions and new relationships, which India, China, and Japan have to face, of the contributions which they have made and can still make to the sum of human culture. We need not go on piling up instances, but it is not too much to say that for the average citizen, as school, and indeed also adult, education is now organized, geography is the only medium through which he is likely to get the essential outlines of a vital world-picture. At the end he may return to the study of his own country to reinterpret its problems, responsibilities, and opportunities in the clearer light of its world relationships, and to work henceforward, as one may hope, *pro patria* indeed, but *pro patria per orbis concordiam*.

How may these aims be worked out in secondary schools, with which this chapter is specially concerned? The years in the secondary school are built, for many pupils, on the earlier years in the primary school, while those who get these early years in preparatory schools or junior forms attached to secondary schools must go through analogous phases of preparation, we are therefore in some measure concerned with

early school years, but for the purpose of this chapter it is the years from 11 to 18 that count most.

Social Geography of the Home Area

Whatever other qualities are needed to make a good citizen, a loving familiarity with and at the same time an objective understanding of the home region are essential. The attitude of mind developed by study of the home region should lead to inquiry and reflection upon means of preserving what is best in the region's heritage, of rectifying mistakes of the past, and of planning for future generations so as to develop possibilities of the good life for all. It is easier to learn the geography of the home land if you live in little England than if your home is in vast Russia. So also it is easier to grasp the unity of, and to learn to have a loving familiarity with, a lovely village, such as West Wycombe, or an ancient town full of beauty, such as Norwich, than to find significance in a city slum or a slum city or, perhaps worse still, some ill-planned suburban housing estate. In this part of the subject there is work suitable for pupils of all ages, and no universal rules can be laid down as to what should be taken at each step in education. One teacher may see a house merely as a dwelling for so many persons. Another may look at it as also an indication of a particular stage in the development of a village or town; may be able to use it to illustrate morphological features, the distribution of which probably has a subtle meaning. He will thereby be enabled to prepare pupils for a richer citizenship that should know what to treasure and why.

In any area the relation of roads to contours offers much that is of interest, and in towns a map of the site, as it was before the town was there, will often prove invaluable. Such maps are often most important in guiding town planning. To put on such a map the town streets, as they have existed in different periods, is a profitable task. The mapping, in a city or town, of the buildings that give social expression to the district, to the town or to special groups within the town, can be made a valuable introduction to questions of town planning.

to be studied further, in town or country, by mapping all sorts of boundaries, railway and bus stations, car parks and other facts of transport, densities of population and mortality rates, open spaces in public and private lands, and so on. To build up in the course of years in each school a set of maps illustrating the stages of evolution of settlement and activities in the school district, and to exchange duplicates of such maps with other schools is most valuable. The teacher can lead on to consideration of styles of houses, new and old; ideals for healthy housing, housing schemes, arrangements through agricultural centres, milk collection, dairying, and so on, for helping farmers. Schools all over the country have recently been co-operating in producing the Maps of Land Utilization, edited by Dr L. D. Stamp and Mr E. C. Willatts, which are now in course of publication by H.M. Ordnance Survey. The value of these for the discussion of problems of the return of the people to the land, which are engaging so much attention, is very great indeed. For young children in towns a map, showing the places nearest to their homes where they can play out of doors in safe and pleasant surroundings, is a useful introduction. There are few places where one cannot trace back some beauty or amenity to the generosity or foresight of citizens of the present or past, and to map these is to bring home to the pupil what good citizenship may achieve.

It is thus advisable for the child to become acquainted at an early stage with the six-inch map, the twenty-five-inch map in some areas, and the one-inch local sheet, as well as with the different kinds of maps in the school atlas. The local study just described also implies a right use of the collecting instinct, the gathering of specimens of local rocks and of pictures of local scenery for study in comparison with pictures from other regions. Short geographical walks, taken in school hours, or day or even longer excursions are invaluable not only for gathering knowledge but to promote aesthetic appreciation of nature. The discovery that geography is much more than a classroom subject is a real joy, and the pupils may be 'held by the inborn love of Beauty unconsciously of preference to imitate the more beautiful things' (Bridges).

International Relations

A study of commodities may be used to picture the wide and varied connexions of the home country with places abroad. If we obtain these various commodities from abroad to satisfy our needs, what goods do we send in exchange? The British Isles must be placed in a world setting of commerce and communications by rail and road, by sea and air. Geography, unifying in its fundamental principle, can yet be diversified in its treatment of regional relations. The village girl in her cotton frock eating a chocolate or an orange is a concrete example of interdependence through the world of man. R. L. Stevenson in *Travels with a Donkey in the Cevennes* tells of Le Monastier, once noted for lace then much in fashion in England, but afterwards sunk in poverty when the fashion went out, and he adds, 'I am sorry at the change and marvel once more at the complicated scheme of things upon this earth, and how a turn of fashion in England can silence so much mountain merriment in France.' There are problems here of social organization for maintenance that are the core of the world's troubles.

Interest in problems of citizenship can be aroused by reading extracts from reports and other publications of the League of Nations, and especially the International Labour Office, giving conditions of labour, this can be made very educative, and it will do no harm if it gives rise to discussions that are not purely academic. We can train pupils to see behind statistics into facts of life and to realize how rarely statistics are really comparable because so many supplementary considerations come in. We should try to help pupils to read good newspapers intelligently and to recognize the type of article that is merely vicious. A teacher can introduce to pupils such problems as those of Poland and her minorities, showing the genuine difficulties of a government faced at times by what is very nearly defiance, and the troubles of the minorities that a government may be constraining to alter their heritages of language or religion.

Russia's Five-Year Plans and their social consequences;

China's floods and famines, and the crisis the 'White Peril' has brought to her; India's immense variety of religions and modes of life, the change that is spreading so rapidly over Africa; the northward extension of coloured labour in U S A. since the War; the reasons why Brazil trades so specially with U S A, whereas Argentina trades more with Britain; the struggle of Afghanistan, Abyssinia, and other non-European powers against European desires to take them in hand and organize them—all these and many more are subjects for discussion and meditation. There is a great need, especially just now, to try to show that achievements as well as problems are interesting. The Swiss, we are often told, are a freedom-loving people, but their freedom is often, for a school child, made to depend on a successful piece of insubordination by William Tell. Of much greater value would be an account of the corporate life in the remoter valleys of the Alps where the love of freedom has so long burned. And if a pupil lives in, or knows, Wales, can his attention not be drawn to the way in which remoteness and separateness of the valleys have there encouraged the survival of diverse dialects of the Welsh language?

In these days of advertisement of Nordic Racialism it is interesting and profitable to note that the three really Nordic countries of Europe, namely, Sweden, Norway, and Denmark, are distinguished for their adhesion to a respect for conscience, a zeal for as well as a great skill in schemes of co-operation, and in educating for life rather than for fortune, all features contrasting so dramatically with repression of conscience and the consequent spy-and-purge system with consequent difficulties of scientific honesty elsewhere. There are few countries that have so much to teach us about citizenship as has Denmark, and its modern development grew primarily out of its folk high schools which aimed at making good citizens, accustomed to work together in confidence, and to value expert advice without losing their own power of judgement.

Modes of Social Life

The pupils must also learn to appreciate the lives of people in different environments, the Eskimo, the Canadian lumber-

man; both the nomad herdsman and the irrigating cultivator in the Steppe lands of Asia, both the husbandman and the maritime trader of the Mediterranean, the nomads of the camel as well as the cattle-and-sheep men of the borders of the Arabian desert, the millet as well as the rice farmers of the monsoon lands of Asia, the rubber and ivory collectors as well as the rubber and palm-plantation workers of the equatorial forest-lands. All these should be made to suggest that the relations between men and their environments are very subtle and that no one large region can now be discussed as having but one mode of life. Broad comparisons and contrasts with the home region should be made throughout. Wherever possible, extracts from travellers' accounts or good literary descriptions should be given so that the work may be vivid and vital.

A broader outlook especially on non-European races can be inculcated in this work. Often the native people may be the only folk who can carry on the ordinary avocations of life under the climatic conditions prevailing, and we must concern ourselves both to create conditions for work willingly rendered and properly rewarded, and to maintain and adjust healthily the societies to which the people belong. Many telling examples could be given. The Cholo Indian of the Punas, or very high levels, in the Andes, is adapted to work in a very rarefied atmosphere, the West African can work in a climate that Europeans find it difficult to tolerate even when most of the work is done for them, the Samoyede and Lapp face conditions of cold and snow that trouble us seriously.

An examination of books for schools shows a considerable recent advance in treating of the lives of the peoples of the world. There is, however, one aspect, most important in the teaching of citizenship, that is seldom touched upon, and that is the way in which the members of a group are organized to live together in some sort of harmony, to co-operate in works of general value, and to maintain the group organization from generation to generation. We read in school-books of chiefs and headmen particularly in connexion with fighting, but of how they are chosen, and of what is their part in the ordering

of the group's social life, we are too often left in ignorance. Nor do we read in such books how far the individual may act on his own initiative, and to what extent he is limited by the group's law and tradition or by the powers of the chief. Often, again, a group, many an agricultural group in Africa for example, is built up through partial or complete fusion of elements of diverse origins, we need to be told about this, and to learn that a society may carry heritages brought from a distance, in time and in space, by no means all its features need be responses to the immediate environment. There is a danger of impoverishing geography by restricting it to a review of physical features, some kind of demographic description and a survey of economic products. The earth should be presented not so much as the domain of economic products that are shuffled about from place to place via natural routes, gateways, and markets, but rather as the home of the peoples concerned, of groups of various grades of cohesion and durability in which individuality has found sometimes more and sometimes less scope for its growth. The comparative study of individuality in lowly and more complex societies can be made useful to illustrate the growth of self control and the value of conscience as a factor of continued social health. It can soon be realized that all plans, however dictatorially carried out, neglect essential points and need a free breeze of criticism to keep them healthy.

The School Course

Thus far we have seen that

(a) *Home Regional Geography* is an essential feature. Facts can be located and mapped, and the pupil learns to see through the map to the realities behind. The meaning of geographical terms is acquired, and standards of length, area, and slope are comprehended in a concrete way. All the aspects of local geography are seen in their connected unity. Old Maps and Ordnance Survey Maps are used and verified on the ground; land utilization is noted and a completed record of the regional geography forms a sort of new 'domesday book' of

the home-region. Records from many neighbouring regions could be worked up by the School of Geography at the local university and the whole made to serve as a 'grand inquest' of the nation. Out-of-doors geography and the school-journey are valuable elements of training.

(b) *A Study of the British Isles* forms an integral part of the work in every geography course. They are made up of a number of different 'home-regions', each with its own individuality and focal capital. These regions are linked up with one another by trade, transport, and interchange, and all are parts of the United Kingdom. The study of the regions brings out varieties of scenery, relief, climate, agriculture, industry, manufacture, distribution of population, and so on. The parts must be seen as integral units in the whole and the whole as made up of widely differing constituent parts. Once this has been grasped, the pupil can be led to see that the British Isles are part of Europe and form just one 'natural region' of the continent, which is made up of many contrasted natural regions. When world-study is reached, the British Isles are seen in their world-setting—linked to all other lands by bonds of trade and culture-exchange and served by arteries of communication, whether by land, sea, or air. The units of the British Commonwealth are (later) best studied in the same world-setting.

(c) A scheme of school geography must include a knowledge of *the world as a whole in broad outline*—not in bare outline. This is the framework into which all our geographical facts must be fitted and the final unity into which all the regional diversities must be gathered up. The outline should be vivid, made up of the vital and relevant facts which matter to a picture of the *World as one whole*. The conception of 'major natural regions' is developed, a study of zones, distribution of land and water, winds and sun heat, belts of natural vegetation, mountain barriers, and ocean margins. World resources and their utilization, world trade and transport, states and their economic policies all call for study.

As pupils advance up the school, growing use is made of statistics, records, isopleth maps, and political frontiers on

orographical maps. The flesh and blood of vital human geography is wedded to a firm construction of factual knowledge wherever geography is well taught.

There still remains a tendency to drop geography in certain secondary schools at the age of 14—a grave error, as it is just in the years after 14 that the finer points in the development of citizenship can be worked out, and that the great books about adventure and regions and peoples of the world can become useful introductions to literature. When adolescence begins there is a reorientation of outlook. The tendency to engage in phantasies gives place to a desire to understand realities, the girls, and often the boys too, are impelled towards an ideal of social service, such concepts as that of the League of Nations begin to appeal to the mind, and the feeling for beauty can be developed. Those who stay on at school after they reach the age of 16 have the best opportunities from their wider reading to enrich their sense of citizenship, while they take the courses for the Higher School Certificate which under several examining authorities are designed, in Geography, in considerable measure with this end in view.

The way in which the various elements in the geography course will be fitted together will properly vary with the personality of the teacher and the situation and opportunities of the school. To tackle contour maps with quite young children is one of the few general instructions that may be given. Let us add to this that the teacher should watch the pupils' mental growth and find the passing phase during which memorizing is attractive and often easy, and should use this for all sorts of purposes connected with names on maps, and with relative quantities. It is a reproach to many geography classes that their hold on quantitative knowledge is ineffectual. They should know that Denmark is much smaller—less than one-fifth—than Great Britain, though nearly half again as large as Belgium which has more than double its population. They should know, and in many cases would be interested to tabulate, in order of population, the 'million' cities of the world, or of Europe and Asia, as exercises for themselves, with the aid of the *Statesman's Year Book* which

should be bought at intervals of a few years by every school, especially as copies a year or two old can be procured very cheaply. This reference book, especially if the school can get it for a few years reasonably spaced out, can become a most interesting vehicle of education in citizenship. Quantitative knowledge helps. Cairo is approximately 30° 30', that is, it lies near 30° N latitude and 30° E longitude. Leningrad similarly is about 60° 30', and so on. It would be an interesting competition to ask a class to look out the best short series of mnemonic figures to furnish a framework for locations in world geography, and it could be made a contribution to citizenship if it were used to inculcate reasonable notions of relative distance and area that would prevent people from talking of China and India as though either were a country comparable with England, or even with Germany, in area or population.

With the spread of scouts and guides, the map and all it implies becomes more general, besides being powerfully aided by camping, tramping, and motoring. The map is the geographer's specific instrument and it cannot be used too much, but let us be sure that the maps are good enough. Old maps that simply marked the greatest mountain ranges like feathery caterpillars have sometimes given rise to fundamental mistakes, such as the idea current in some quarters of a plain stretching from the far north to the far south in China.

There remains, however, in the teaching and study of geography, abundant scope for diversity of approach and of treatment according to personality, and perhaps to the sex of the pupils. The order of treatment of the continents is a subject that has exercised teachers' minds very greatly. There is no doubt a certain broad simplicity of structure, of climate and thus of vegetation and of possibilities of cultivation about America north of Mexico, and this, coupled with the fact that the overwhelming majority of the people are of European tradition and so rather like ourselves, makes English-speaking America attractive for an introductory study. The simplicity of structure of Africa and the directness of the relation of its climates to latitude, again, makes it a useful early study,

especially as it can be used to illustrate the concomitants of lowly agriculture. Europe and Asia need to be envisaged together, and their ancient civilizations make them a more complex subject, in treating which, perhaps best not too early, care must be taken to give due appreciation to oriental civilizations and their contributions to mankind. Europe's debts to China include silk, oranges, tea, porcelain, and several other material gifts as well as not a few ideas. A collection of coloured postcards of objects of beauty from those civilizations in the British Museum and elsewhere may be a revelation to many a pupil who may have unconsciously imbibed a notion of race-superiority.

Comparisons of the great areas with one another, of Australia with South America, of the East and West Indies, of the three great masses of population represented in Japan and China, in India and in Europe around the more sparsely peopled core of Eurasia, and many other analogies, always of course partial ones, will be found not only enlightening in a scientific sense, but also invaluable as a citizen's guide to life in interdependent societies in which a good perspective is so important.

Geography and other Subjects in the School Curriculum

The ways in which geography teaching can link itself with that of history have been mentioned again and again by implication in what has preceded. To the historian the good contoured map is a necessity, it can guard him against grave misjudgements affecting matters of citizenship that the use of a small atlas often allows him to make unconsciously. The extension of Japanese power, long ago, on a narrow front, through the long but slender main island by gradual conquest, contributed not a little to the growth of the unique strength of its nationalism. A study of the map of the Midland Valley of Scotland will contribute much to the understanding of the diversity between Scotland, which has largely merged her language in that of England but kept distinct in law, and Wales, which has lost her law but in a large measure

kept her language. Without geographical reading behind him the political historian is but too apt to use the names of countries as counters and little more. Geography can be brought to bear on the interpretation of the Old Testament scriptures and can thereby enrich the pupils' conception of citizenship. Only too often schools fail to arouse interest in the scripture lesson for lack of a method of approach that is both unbiased and evolutionary. The changes from pastoral nomadism to national self-consciousness developed in the minds of men dreaming of peace under their own vine and their own fig-tree, and from an almost savage domination of a bloodthirsty cult to a concept of God requiring righteousness in place of ritual, can be followed in their relation to the environment of Palestine in ways that are eloquently set forth in Sir George Adam Smith's *Historical Geography of the Holy Land*.

A Higher School Certificate course in modern or ancient languages may be enormously enriched by even a short series of geographical lessons on the lands concerned. To picture the isles of Greece and the coasts of the Aegean with their cities and their opportunities for sailing from point to point in sight of land is to enrich one's conception of the background of Greek thought and art. And how different are the backgrounds of the literature of France and England with the different scenes, the different activities, and the different connexions of the two peoples? With the help of geography a course in a foreign literature may become a great help to international understanding.

The study of economics without geography has sometimes led to discussion of mere abstractions like the 'economic man' and the use of statistics in a blind way without appreciation of the fact that for different countries they often have very different meanings. Vital factors are continually being brought out by geographical study. The advent of hydro-electric power has given the Alpine lands a new position in the world, and it has moreover been possible to carry the power to historic centres with accumulated experience and traditions of taste, whereas in the Britain of the Coal Era, manufacturing

had to be carried on near the pit-head, and towns grew to be abscesses on the fair form of the land. The geography of international indebtedness with some study of its evolution can be made invaluable as an introduction to the subject of world citizenship, for it will soon emerge that England is a creditor nation in grave difficulties partly because, almost without realizing it, she came to depend too much on a precarious export trade that was in some aspects just selling on a speculative instalment system with the instalments disguised as interest and, sometimes, amortisation of loans. Again, the fact that not a few of the large cities of modern Germany have grown from historic nuclei on publicly owned land has made them, and the conditions of industry in them, very different from what we find in Britain, where it is only by almost super-human effort that some small measure of success is hoped for in preserving even such a unique treasure as Oxford.

Activities outside the Curriculum

Societies interested in the work of the League of Nations will find that geographers can and should help with studies of the thoughts and ideals of the peoples of the world, and that this is often a better approach than the more political one.

It is important that the recent efforts to promote travel and the use of foreign languages by both teachers and pupils should be encouraged. The work of the School Journeys Association, and the travel organized by the Le Play Society, for students, teachers, and other adults, are most important. The Geographical Association also works towards these ends in several ways in co-operation with the societies mentioned. The same importance attaches to school excursions which pupils may help to prepare for by collecting and sifting information about the places to be visited, and seeing it on the map as they go to see it in actuality. To be able to picture the life of actual people with the help of a map is a great help to the future citizen.

Especially among the younger children it may be possible to stimulate correspondence with children in other countries,

and thence to help forward the practical study of modern languages. Debates and the giving of papers by pupils are to be encouraged in every way. The magnificent photographs published in *The Times*, the *Manchester Guardian*, the *Illustrated London News*, and other papers, and the illustrations issued by the British Museum and other institutions, should be an incentive to the building up of collections of illustrations, especially now that the epidiascope and related instruments give such opportunities of showing them to classes and public meetings. To choose out a set illustrating a district and its life is a task that will give some training in judgement and balance as well as in criticism, and it will be invaluable if, in the case of the home area, both pictures and objects are exhibited with appropriate notes to form a museum. It may not be amiss to look at pictures and to see in them, or the reproductions that may be available, either the characteristic landscapes or the quality of light and shadow or the features of the people of a country. It has often happened that the work of major artists has given subtle revelations of their country's life and thought.

Conclusion

It will be seen from this essay that geography gives the teacher special opportunities to help the future citizen, especially in his later school years, to build up what may become one of his most valuable possessions, a vision of the world in which he will work to live, and in which other men in other circumstances also work to live, with methods and aims different from his own, but worthy of respectful study and appreciation so long as the aggressive spirit in political and in economic matters is kept under control and men's faces are set towards a goal of concord in liberty.

CHAPTER 7
ECONOMICS
FOREWORD

By SIR ARTHUR SALTER, K C B.

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EDUCATION for citizenship means an education which not only strengthens and develops the mind in general but equips the new generation to understand the world in which we live and form an intelligent judgement of the problems with which we are confronted as citizens

Since the greater part of our adult waking life is concerned with earning our living, and since the main content of government now consists of the regulation of economic activity, it is obvious that no one can be regarded as educated for citizenship unless he understands the elementary principles which underlie economic activity and knows something of the main organizations which regulate it

Economics indeed, if properly studied and taught, has a quite exceptional combination of values. On its more abstract side it gives an exercise in exact thought like logic or mathematics. At the same time, its relation to what we are directly experiencing and seeing all around us gives it a living interest which purely abstract subjects do not possess. The teacher has the invaluable advantage of illustrating the principles he is teaching by examples drawn from the personal experience of those whom he is teaching.

These advantages have corresponding dangers against which special precautions are necessary. It is not easy to inculcate in others, or even to achieve for oneself, the proper relation between abstract theory and practice. It is a very common failure in this respect which is at the basis of the somewhat ambiguous repute in which economists are held by the public. Too often we seem to be confronted by two kinds of economists, the theorists who build a superstructure

of doctrine on the basis of the abstraction of the 'economic man', and the economic historians who present us with a mass of facts unilluminated by principle. There is a similar gulf between those who study and those who practice, between economists and the leaders of business enterprise. Each fails to learn from, and in turn to teach, the other. The vital need of the day is to bridge those gulfs. The divorce of economists from the practical responsibilities of business life or administration has another disadvantage. It means that they are much more concerned with the questions on which they differ than with those on which, if they were in closer contact with the practical issues of policy, they would find they were in substantial agreement. There is no reason why economists should differ more than, say, doctors. Perhaps they do not. But their differences bulk more largely. And the reason is simply that while medicine also finds its principal scientific interest upon the fringe of the field of medical science, which is least explored and necessarily therefore most subject to controversy, all those who pursue it feel themselves members of a great profession the majority of whom have the daily responsibility of treating patients. Consequently we have always, in addition to a marginal territory of discussion and disagreement, a considerable and increasing sphere of orthodoxy, an accepted and agreed doctrine covering most of the daily problems of common health and illness. Economists suffer from having no similar fellowship with those who practice the activities whose principles they study.

The teacher of elementary economics is handicapped by these defects in the text-books on which he must draw himself; and he needs to be especially careful to avoid repeating them in his instruction. He will need always to keep his teaching of doctrine and his description of fact in close relation to each other, turning alternately from one to the other, and illuminating each by the other. I believe that, in this as in other subjects, he will do best to be constantly starting from the visible and the tangible and building up on this basis the superstructure both of doctrine and of some kind of ordered conception of the economic world. He might, for

example, take some common object in the room, a chair or an ink-well, explain where the raw materials came from; the specialized industries that have contributed special operations, the transport and distributive services, the capital originally required and the main outline of the financial system by which it is made available. This will enable him to explain the basic fact of our economic system, viz the great economies resulting from specialization and the chief problem to which they give rise, the need for linking together many processes so that each fits into the other. This will lead him on to the part played by money, and by changing prices as the guide by which in general competitive enterprise adjusts supply to demand. This in turn will open the way to discussing the principal ways in which maladjustments arise, the alternation of boom and depression; the meaning of unemployment, the relation of collective regulation to the more automatic system of adjustment through competition and changing prices and so on.

The extent to which he develops his teaching must of course depend upon the age and intelligence of those whom he is teaching. But there is no reason why even those who leave at the earliest age, and are of no more than average intelligence, should not acquire the main elementary conceptions which are required to make possible at least an intelligent interest in the complicated economic system of which we are a part. To think straight, to use evidence, to make words one's servants and not one's master, to realize what one's national literature can give, to have a general framework of elementary knowledge about the universe, modern history, and one's own body; and to add to this some elementary knowledge of what science is doing and of the economic system through which we exchange our own services for those which meet our needs—these seem to me all indispensable elements in the education of a properly equipped citizen. And though the extent to which we develop our knowledge and understanding in each of these spheres must vary indefinitely with intelligence and with the selected specialization of study or occupation, it seems to me that in a properly

devised system even the elementary schools should be content with no narrower scope. If the teaching is sufficiently simple and elementary even those who enter on the business of specialized earning half-way through their teens should be able to do so with minds equipped to understand the world they are entering—and so equipped to add throughout life to their knowledge and understanding of it.

CHAPTER 7

ECONOMICS

By N F HALL, M A , A.M.

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Provision in Schools

THE Association for Education in Citizenship has made inquiries amongst a number of secondary schools in which some provision is made for introducing to both boys and girls the discussion of contemporary problems, many of them economic in character. The answers received show that the methods adopted vary considerably, ranging from the ordinary debating society to complete courses in economics, introduced at suitable points in the curriculum so that every pupil obtains a minimum of training in this subject before he or she leaves school. The number of pupils obtaining some sort of systematic teaching in economic matters is shown by these inquiries to be much larger than, for example, the number taking the subject in the School Certificate examinations, and if less formal instruction, such as periodical talks by a member of the staff or by an outside speaker, works visits, collections of newspaper cuttings, and similar methods are included, there is evidence of fairly widespread interest in the problem of using social studies in the schools as a direct contribution towards training in citizenship. Such diversity of method is to be expected while we are still in the pioneering stages, but there are still far too many schools where little or nothing is being done. This is very surprising when we reflect that it is impossible to-day to prevent young people discussing with keen interest contemporary social and economic problems. The absence in some schools of any proper provision for guiding this lively interest is a substantial defect in our educational system. This chapter, which is based upon reports written by those who have been teaching economics in schools, sets out to show how important

it is that more provision should be made for training in this subject. It also discusses some of the practical problems that arise in designing courses and in fitting them into existing school curricula.

Much of the work at present carried on in the schools cannot properly be called the teaching of economics. Occasional talks on contemporary problems, even if they include discussions of such questions as the gold standard, war debts and reparations, or tariffs, are not enough by themselves, nor are references to contemporary affairs in history and geography lessons. Works visits, debates, and the study of the daily and periodical press are useful adjuncts to classroom teaching, but lose much of their value if they become substitutes for it. Experience shows that none of these things can do what systematic instruction in economics itself is able to do.

Advantage of Training in Economics

As an Educational Instrument

In the first place, it is necessary to provide training in economics because it has a definite educational value of its own. On this point the teachers themselves provide conclusive evidence. In the second place, it is becoming abundantly clear that it is not sufficient merely to train the minds of the young boys and girls in one special field in the blind hope that they will be able to use their training indifferently in fields other than those in which they have been specially trained. The task of education is twofold, first to develop the mind, and secondly to provide training in using it. When Mr. Gladstone became Vice-President of the Board of Trade, he was forced to undergo what was really a very thorough course of training in economics. His chief, Sir Robert Peel, sent him to the post with that object in view. It took him several years of hard work to learn how to use in economic matters the magnificent intellectual equipment which he had brought into public life. The secondary schools of a democratic country cannot be expected to turn out many

Gladstones, but they are charged with the responsibility of producing the citizens of the future. These citizens will need the power to think over and to vote upon important economic issues, much of their education will be in vain if they have had no training in using their minds in examining economic problems. This consideration lies behind the decision of some schools to make proper provision for teaching in economics. The experiences of their teachers show that they are meeting a very great need.

It is significant, however, that these teachers do not think it necessary to emphasize in their reports the benefits that will come to their pupils as citizens after they leave school. They take this result of the training for granted, and go on to show the real value of teaching economics in developing the minds of their pupils. Here are some examples of what they have to say:

1. One teacher ends his description of what he has been trying to do in his own school by setting himself the question 'How may we expect such teaching (of economics) to promote the qualities needed by a good citizen of a free state?' First, it encourages the habit of doubting. 'Persevere,' ran the Greek proverb, 'and remember to disbelieve, for these are the sinews of the mind.' The boy or girl who has studied a subject in which every conclusion is subject to constant examination in the light of everyday events will not take the newspaper or the orator on trust.

Second, it develops the habit of asking for evidence and proof, not merely in academic matters, but on controversial topics. It is comparatively easy to maintain a scientific attitude of mind about, say, the properties of a circle; the result of the study of economics should be to enable the student to examine his political and social prejudices with equal detachment. Finally, it trains the student in argument, and in patient and civilized behaviour towards those with whom he disagrees. It is, therefore, a subject which should help us to increase the body of educated people, capable of the political intelligence and virtue which is the material of civilization.

2. A second concludes by making much the same point 'A theoretical problem in economics involves for the boy of 16-18 a new way of thinking and provides new sorts of problems which must be solved from a new angle.'

3. From another school, where every girl before she leaves is given a course in economics, come the following answers from the pupils themselves to the question 'Does this economics course seem to you to be useful?' All the girls agreed that in fact the teaching was useful. Some emphasized the point that it helped to show them the importance of reasoning things out and of developing an impartial approach to problems. They were impressed by the interdependence of different industries and of national and international affairs.

This same school, in order to test the success of a rather more elaborate course in economics extending over one to two years, asked its girls to review critically the report given in *The Times* of a speech delivered by an important continental statesman in explanation of a recent event in his own country which had created misgiving and disquiet not only in the country concerned, but in the world at large. The girls were given an hour to produce written criticisms of the speech itself, not of the event. Without exception they found it unsatisfactory. Some recognized its probable success upon the audience present on the occasion of delivery, but most of them were quick to point out its own internal inconsistencies. They nailed down the more important of these, and many of them drew attention to a part of the speech which, while plausible at first sight, was contrary to any principle of justice. Many of them noted that at a critical stage in his argument the speaker deliberately distracted the attention of his audience from the point at issue by passionate references to a neighbouring country.

The teachers who conceived this interesting test conclude. 'We feel that the critical faculty aroused through the study of economics has been successfully applied to this political question. On reviewing the year's work with the various classes in economics we all agree that the courses do stimulate both interest and thought, and that they open up to

girls some conception of conditions of life other than their own '.

4. Another teacher,¹ who has carried out careful experiments in the teaching of economics in secondary, central, and elementary schools in a certain area, concludes his report upon what he has done.

'The results, modest though they were, justify the efforts of those who took part in them. The heads of the schools concerned would support this statement. The character of the benefit cannot easily be defined. One may hope that the pupils who had the difficult task of writing something worthy of respect about the most elementary and apparently most obvious facts of the economic world will not forget the difficulty of the task when they are confronted with the specious platitudes of agitators of all kinds in after life. One may also hope that some of the broad principles of economic organization and scientific thinking may have made an impression upon their minds and that an interest has been created in the *study* of social problems. The study of elementary Economics has had the effect of improving the pupils' understanding, and hence knowledge, of history and geography in some of the schools. Finally, some of the pupils will remember how they arrived at certain conclusions by co-operative thinking '.

These considered conclusions must be taken seriously. They remove one very substantial source of misunderstanding. Economics must not be dragged into the syllabus as a grudging concession to the complex and material civilization of the twentieth century. The subject has a place and a value of its own, and the experiences of its teachers which we have quoted must command the sympathy and respect of those who are concerned in teaching all other subjects. They reveal a comity of pedagogical ideals which is indispensable for the development of a worthy educational system based upon a well-balanced grouping of subjects. The claim which economics makes to be the indispensable preparation for life in a modern state is neither arrogant nor exclusive. Its teachers recognize, firstly, the importance of giving to their pupils special guidance in using their minds in economic and

¹ R. J. Howrie, Loughborough College

social matters and, secondly, they all emphasize the importance of developing a critical and independent attitude of mind, an awareness of the difficulties of finding truth and a new appreciation of the interdependence of the various parts of the economic and social systems of the modern world.

As a Training for Citizenship

The training of the mind and the unbiased outlook upon problems which experience shows to be the result of the teaching of economics in schools is not different in kind from the intellectual training that the pupils get in some other subjects in the curriculum. From this point of view the subject has an educational value of its own. It has, however, the additional advantage of being directly applicable to issues which the pupil must face after schooldays are over. Its subject-matter is focused differently. It bears directly upon questions related to his own self-interest, to questions in the discussion of which bias and emotion, as a result of environment, are easily aroused. The student finds difficulty in bringing to bear upon these subjects the same attitude of mind that is comparatively easily attainable in the more abstract subjects in the curriculum. He has difficulty in grasping that, in the world of affairs, the same fundamental scientific principles apply as in the natural sciences or in the study of history. As soon as he surmounts this difficulty his mind is aroused; he is convinced of the value of what he is invited to study, and although in later life he may not always carry out his functions as a citizen with supreme wisdom, a new window has been opened in his mind through which he can see from a fresh angle the society in which he lives. The teaching of economics in the schools cannot provide the citizen of the future with the 'right' answer to all the problems which may confront him as an enfranchised member of a free society. It can, and does, show him that he must bring to these problems the same attitude of mind as that in which he approaches a problem in natural science or in history.

We have seen that quite apart from questions of public utility in the direct training of citizens economics requires a

place in the educational curricula. Exactly what this place shall be depends upon certain general and special considerations. First, the general trend in education seems unmistakably to be towards a great diversity of subjects. We are now aware that it is dangerous to try to force all minds into a common mould, and part at least of the problem of formulating a satisfactory educational system is the provision of such a variety of opportunities as will match the differing tastes and abilities of adolescent minds. There can be no doubt that not only the details of the material used in economics but also the nature of the reasoning involved make a very special appeal to both boys and girls who do not necessarily find the same stimulation in other subjects. This is a common experience amongst university teachers, and the same thing seems to be true at the secondary school stage too.

It is not infrequently the case that the growing mind develops a delicate social conscience; a wireless talk, a newspaper article, a book picked up by chance, or some problem of history which suggests a contemporary parallel, any or all of these things quickly arouse an interest in contemporary problems. In some cases it grows and develops, and if it is not properly guided, it finds an outlet in various forms of extremism which satisfy the emotions while they distort the mind. It has become increasingly common in recent years to find among the freshmen in the universities, particularly among the abler students, young men and women who have steeped themselves so thoroughly in the literature of quackery that they waste a large part of their time in readjusting their minds. The great majority of secondary-school pupils do not proceed to a university and may remain permanently the victims of their enthusiasms, the ready prey of the quack and demagogue.

Methods of Teaching

The teacher of economics starts, therefore, with part of his work completed, the interest of his pupils is already aroused. But his task is not made easier because of this. If he adopts the descriptive method of approach in his teaching, he will

find a quickened interest in each subject which is brought up for analysis and discussion. The way in which industries are organized, the work of trade unions, the achievements and limitations of the various social services, and the working of the Bank of England and the money market will each in turn provide fascinating and exciting subjects for study. The pupil, properly guided, will rapidly grasp the details of each separate subject as it comes under review, and in the great majority of cases will be interested and eager to learn. But the work of the teacher goes far beyond the provision of detail. He has to show how all these separate sections fit together to form a coherent whole. The full benefit of the instruction will come as the inter-relationships of the several parts are revealed so that the pupil can see, in addition to the trees which he has studied in detail, the wood of which they are the indispensable parts. Only after this is done will the enthusiasm with which the student started be properly developed and the full value of the subject made clear.

If the more theoretical analytical approach is adopted, the same stages must be passed through. The grammar of economic theory is as exacting in the demands it makes upon its students as that of a classical language. It has the advantage, however, that such things as the relationship between costs and prices and the laws of distribution have an immediate bearing upon the real world. They are therefore more immediately interesting *per se* to the student than tenses and moods and other parts of speech. Their relevance to the ultimate objective in view, the understanding of the system as a whole, is apparent even in the early stages of study. But until the student has gone through the whole grammar of principles and then learned how they all fit together, he will not get the full benefit from his work. Only when he can see the unity of economic relationships throughout the entire system will he realize the importance of what he first learned about subjective values and the foundations of the price system. If he perseveres to this stage, everything should come into focus for him; he will have added a sort of sixth sense

which will guide, discipline, and illuminate the interests and enthusiasms which helped him at the outset of his studies. The notion that economics is inherently too difficult a subject for boys and girls comes from those who have tried to get a smattering of it and have failed to learn its grammar before they began to read. It is, like all other subjects worthy of a place in an educational system, difficult in some ways to teach because the mind has to overcome its enthusiasms and to subject itself to discipline before it can develop new powers.

Although the art of teaching economics is exacting the quantity of teaching required need not be very great. This only becomes necessary if the teacher feels that he must cover a definite area of ground on the descriptive side. If he can be left fairly free to limit this part of the teaching to the time at his disposal and to the capacity of his class, he ought to be able to design a course which, in a relatively small number of teaching hours, will bring his pupils to the stage in which the full benefit of studying the subject can be gained, that is, to a comprehension of the inter-relations between the several parts of an economic system rather than the details of any sections of it. This being the case, the subject probably only lends itself to an external examination system such as the School Certificate examinations, if the school can arrange for a special syllabus either for itself or for a group of schools. Most examining bodies welcome arrangements of this sort, and co-operation between them and the teachers is not usually very difficult to arrange. The advantage of the system of formal examination by an outside body is that it tends to set a standard to which the majority of schools must conform. This, no doubt, raises the average of attainment at the cost of imposing some limitation upon the freedom of action of the more progressive schools. It is perhaps a counsel of perfection to expect that economics will be as widely taught as it should be if a place is not found for it in the formal examination system. If it is necessary to include it in order to raise the average level of attainment it will probably be necessary to allow for considerable elasticity of syllabus.

It is perhaps significant that many of the schools which are experimenting successfully with the teaching of economics have found a place for it outside the arrangements which they make for the teaching of School Certificate subjects. That this can be done successfully should provide encouragement to others who may be contemplating introducing the subject. The rest of this chapter is, therefore, devoted to describing what has been done, and to discussing some of the problems that have arisen.

Schemes of Work

* A large girls' school has set itself the objective of giving to all its pupils some systematic teaching of economics before they leave the school. It has further been decided that this teaching should begin as near to the end of school life as possible. In practice this means that three different types of pupils have to be provided for, those who leave before they take the School Certificate, those who leave in the same year as they take the Certificate examination, and those who remain one or more years after getting their Certificates. Those who have an extra year before taking School Certificate, and who therefore may leave before taking this examination, are divided into two classes and take one lesson in economics each week. Each lesson lasts for forty minutes, and half-an-hour or forty minutes are expected by way of preparation. A simple economics text-book is used, and other books are available in the library. The aim of the course is to show the interdependence of people, problems of capital and labour, the organization of industry, the financial system including taxation and the machinery of international trade. Points of topical interest are discussed as they arise. At the end of the course the pupils are able to answer simple but fundamental questions on such subjects as the work of trade unions or the co-operative movement, the fall of prices in agricultural products, the main functions of the banks, and simple questions on money and the foreign exchange.

The more difficult problem is presented by those who leave

immediately after obtaining their School Certificate. In this school it has not been thought wise to teach economics as an additional subject in the year in which the Certificate is taken. The date of the examination, however, makes it possible to provide a special intensive course in the interval between the end of the papers and the close of the term. Almost all the girls thought that this course had been well worth while, and their teacher felt that they had learned something. The success of such an experiment must clearly depend to a very great extent upon the enthusiasm of both teacher and taught.

This school feels that the real opportunity comes in the year following the School Certificate. Provision is made for three groups of from twenty to thirty girls who have one lesson a week throughout the year. Oral instruction supported by the reading of a text-book is the foundation upon which the course is built. The school library is plentifully supplied with books on economic and social subjects. The *Economist* and the *Contemporary Review* are available, and in preparation for debates and in the composition of papers to be read to the class the girls have access to daily papers. The study of economic theory and its application to contemporary problems is the object of the course. The report of the teachers makes it plain that they attach more importance to the development of critical and reasoning faculties than to the cramming of facts. They speak of the real interest and enthusiasm of the pupils. A specimen paper set at the end of the course is divided into two sections, the first requiring an appreciation of the methods of economic analysis and the meaning of economic principles, the second being more descriptive in character, requiring the application of economic knowledge to the discussion of contemporary problems.

The experience of this school is paralleled by that of many others who have given the Association for Education in Citizenship the benefit of their advice. Non-specialized courses of one teaching period a week throughout the year have been successfully tried out for pupils of both sexes between the ages of 15 and 18. The difficulty which most

constantly arises is the maintenance of proportion between the descriptive and the analytical parts of the subject. This is particularly the case when only one hour a week for one year can be given to it. In this connexion, therefore, it seems to be worth while to quote the experience of a master in a large secondary school for boys. He had for some years been giving a fairly extensive course to certain forms on the modern side of his school. Having sufficient time at his disposal he was able to go quite thoroughly into economic theory, including the theory of money, and in teaching economic organization he could work backwards and include some economic history. He had most of his boys for two years and some of them for three, and was able to give greater diversity to his course than is usual. Recently, however, he has had to reconstruct his work as his school has now decided to extend the teaching of economics so that all the senior boys have a year's course in the subject before they leave. This involved some reduction in the time available for each pupil, as the course was to occupy only one year, for two hours a week. The school thought, however, that to give all the boys an adequate course in economics before they left school was more important than the provision of specialized teaching for those on the modern side. This decision seems to be in agreement with the views expressed by almost all the teachers with whom the Association has been in contact.

The reduction of the time at the teacher's disposal for each class made it necessary for him to change his methods of instruction. Instead of starting with the outlines of economic theory which involves a new way of thinking and an approach to more or less familiar problems from a new angle, he now begins with a description of an economic organization and works theory in at a later stage. The text-book is introduced only after an outline of economic organization and a statistical description of its principal features have been provided. This approach to the subject has the additional advantage of allowing the teacher to vary his methods and thus to draw out the abilities and interests of the boys. Some are required to prepare descriptive papers covering a particular economic

institution. This exercises their constructive capacities and is particularly valuable in arousing interest in the subject discussed. To secure a sounder understanding of issues involved it is sometimes desirable to make a boy give a talk on the subject instead of reading a paper.

In addition to these individual papers, reports on special topics are drawn up by the boys themselves, acting as committees of inquiry. The class is for this purpose split up into small groups; written problems are submitted to each group and reports upon them are prepared. These have to be signed by all the members of the committee concerned, unless any individual wishes to make special reservations. This method has the advantage that it draws out those boys who, while unwilling to talk openly in class, are ready to take their part in the work of a small committee. The teacher reports that this method proves to be popular, but adds the warning 'if it is not used too frequently'. He also attaches great importance to the use of statistical material in teaching economics to schoolboys. The boys are asked to comment upon changes in series of statistics and to give any explanations which they can. This also provides a valuable variation in the course and appeals to boys who do not respond readily to other methods.

The economics text-book is only introduced at a later stage, and theory is used to draw together what has been already dealt with. It is perhaps significant that this teacher reports that while on the whole there is very general interest in contemporary problems such as Tariffs, fewer boys are interested in questions of primarily theoretical interest. 'But', he adds, 'these are often very keen indeed'.

In the reorganization that was necessary to provide teaching in economics for all senior boys instead of only to the modern side, arrangements were made to hand over the teaching of economic history to the history staff instead of the economics teacher doing the work himself. This was necessary for time-table reasons. It is clear that while the two subjects are necessary, and co-operation between those responsible for teaching them is desirable, it is not essential that they should both be taught by the same person. It

follows, however, from what has already been said, that it is a mistake to suppose that reference to contemporary economic and social matters in the history or geography lessons can be regarded as an adequate substitute for systematic teaching of economics as an independent subject. In the teaching of history and geography themselves (matters which are discussed in other chapters of this book) such references are, of course, of considerable value, as they bring into these subjects some of the lively interest which contemporary affairs arouse in certain types of adolescent minds. But just because these two well-recognized school subjects need these contemporary references, it is the more necessary that there should be more generally available systematic teaching of economics as an independent subject. This will be of value both to teachers and to taught. An experienced history teacher complained bitterly to an economist that he had been badly let down because he had long supposed and had taught that the debasement of the coinage by Henry VIII was inflationary. He had then discovered that during the post-war period it had not been inconsistent with the general policy of deflation for the Government to economize by reducing the silver content of the half-crowns, florins, shillings, and sixpences¹. He had no knowledge at all of the difference between subsidiary and standard currency. He was an excellent historian, but he could not have satisfied his pupils had they raised this and similar points with him in his classes. The illustration of the history or geography lesson with contemporary examples is a dangerous thing unless the teacher concerned happens to have some specialized training in economics or can refer some of the questions to a colleague who has. It is likely to raise many more problems in the pupil's mind than it solves unless at the same time systematic teaching in economics is available.

Preparation of the Teacher

This work can only be undertaken satisfactorily by a teacher who has himself had sufficient training in economics. The whole of this chapter has tried to show, from the

experience of teachers who have tried to do it, that the full value of teaching economics comes from the growth of intellectual powers, from the capacity to analyse a situation, and to grasp its inter-relationships with other problems. The difficulty in teaching the subject is the overcoming of the tedious period while this power develops. A teacher who has to rely upon a superficial knowledge 'got up' for the purpose of teaching an 'extra' cannot be expected to be successful in meeting the difficulties of his pupils and in leading them towards this fuller understanding of the subject. He must have more than a smattering of the grammar of the subject, he must have knowledge and know how to apply it. He must have developed that quasi sixth sense which we discussed on page 92. He may have had this experience as an undergraduate or subsequently, but he must at some time have made a really serious study of his subject before he can hope to be a successful teacher. He is not dealing with a subsection of history or geography, his methods must be adapted to his subject, and unless from his own experience in learning he is convinced that this is the case, he will have no foundation upon which to build his personal method of teaching.

But to say this is not to argue that every school must have upon its staff a teacher with a university degree in economics. An examination of university curricula will reveal, in the great majority of cases, that economics as an honours degree subject is less exclusive in the demands that it makes upon a student's time than are other subjects. It is always combined with economic history and political theory or philosophy, and frequently with political history or geography or a language, and in some cases with mathematics. It can be taken as a subsidiary subject for honours degrees in other subjects which, because of their place in the syllabus for School Certificate examinations, rank as 'principal' school subjects. Some, but not exclusive, specialized training is necessary, but the school-teacher who has had the minimum necessary for a subsidiary subject ought to be able to develop his knowledge sufficiently by subsequent reading. He must, however, regard himself as in some sense a specialist, and should aim at mastery in at

least a section of the subject. Without this his teaching will suffer and he will not be able to sympathize, in the literal sense of the word, with his pupils. Their interest and enthusiasm will meet with an inadequate response, and the value of his teaching in training the citizens of the future will be impaired because he will not be able to help them to a full mastery of their minds.

APPENDIX TO CHAPTER 7

Examples of schemes of Work

I SYLLABUSES COVERING THE GENERAL OUTLINE OF THE SUBJECT

County School for Girls, Dover

Lower Sixth Aim of Course study of business life and relation between the worker or citizen and the organized business world

Study of Wealth and Production

Income, and its relation to economic organization.

Capital in Industry

Division of Labour

Banking, Money, the Exchanges

The National Income, how raised, how expended

Practical work Discussions of modern industrial methods, visits to available factories, e.g. paper-mills, flour-mills, &c. Collection from class of information on local industries.

Princess Mary High School, Halifax (Girls)

Sixth Form

Divisions of Commerce and Industry Extraction, Production, Distribution, Consumption, Exchange. Terms of Purchase and Sale

Money. Legal Tender Paper Money Inflation. Banks and Bank Money The Gold Standard

Markets Produce Markets The Money Market, the Foreign Exchange Market The Stock Exchange

Trade Fixing prices Demand elastic and inelastic Stimulation of Demand, opening of new markets

Capital and Labour Different types of shareholders Reserves, losses Wages Trade Unions Trade Boards Co-partnership Unemployment National Control of Labour,

Other syllabuses are of the same nature but at a more advanced stage. The following is the Sixth Form Course at the *Hutton Grammar School, near Preston (Boys)*, where the study of the subject is begun in the Upper Fourth.

- 1 Scope and Subject-Matter Relation to other social sciences
Wants and Satisfaction Economic Laws
- 2 Organization of Production Division of Labour and
Localization of Industry Co-ordination of Specialists,
the Middleman Marketing and Distribution The Agents
of Production
Organization of Agriculture, Commerce, and Transport.
Functions of Capital, types of capitalistic organization, hori-
zontal and vertical combines Marketing and Salesmanship
- 3 Prices Utility; Diminishing Marginal Utility Cost and
the Margin of Production Laws of Supply and Demand
- 4 Money and Banking Functions and Forms of Money
Value of Money, Quantity Theory, Inflation and Defla-
tion English Monetary System, Bank of England,
Banking and Credit, the Gold Standard
- 5 International Trade Comparative Costs; Imports and
Exports, Foreign Exchanges
- 6 Distribution Rent, quasi-rent Wages; relative wages;
economic and social wages Interest and Profit, risk, rent
of ability. Unemployment and the Standard of Living
- 7 Economic Functions of Government Expenditure and
Revenue Taxation and Equity National Debts Local
Finance

At *The King's School, Chester (Boys)*, a two-year course recently used for the Sixth Form includes some political as well as economic study

First Year 1st Term Machinery of Government. Central
Government Judiciary Local Government

2nd Term. Production of Wealth, Supply and Demand Fac-
tors of Production, Labour, Property—Land and Capital;
Organization Supply and Demand, Value Theories

3rd Term Machinery of Exchange Money and Price Level
Banking and Credit Stock Exchange International Trade

Second Year 1st Term Economic and Social History since
1800 System of Production Commercial Policy, Or-
ganized Labour The State and Public Welfare

2nd Term Distribution National Income. Rent, Wages, Interest, Profits

3rd Term Public Finance. Central Government Income and Expenditure, National Debt Local Government Income and Expenditure, Debt.

II. SYLLABUSES COVERING GROUND SIMILAR TO THAT IN THE PREVIOUS SECTION, BUT SHOWING A GREATER TENDENCY TO DEAL WITH MODERN PROBLEMS

Merchant Taylors' School Sixth Form One-Year Course

1st Term (i) Short account of rise and significance of Economic Problems

(ii) Production Population and Food Supply, use of Statistics Coal, Manufactures, and Transport—history of these in Britain since the war Problems of Road and Rail, &c

2nd Term. Supply, Demand, and Exchange. Outline of Monetary Organization

3rd Term Distribution and its Problems Discussion on Economic Organization Laisser-faire and Planning

During this course papers were read and discussions opened by the boys

A Sixth Form One-Year Course at the *Coopers' Company's School* made a still further excursus into modern problems, the course for the last two terms being arranged, after the first term, by discussion with the boys

1st Term Organization of Production Effects of the various agents of Production on the growth of the World's and Britain's Wealth Division of Labour—how affected by transport agencies Tendencies in Modern Industrial Organization.

2nd Term. Prices Monetary Organization The Functions of Price in our Economy, leading to contrast with a Planned Economy and an examination of the Five-Year Plan

3rd Term Continued comparison of Economic Systems, Examination of the Economic Problems (and resultant political problems) in the countries of Europe other than Russia.

III SHORTER COURSES DEALING WITH MODERN ECONOMIC PROBLEMS

Courses of this type appear where it is convenient for the school to arrange that senior pupils should have, either once a year or every term, a course on modern problems, varying the subject each term, or even dealing with several problems in the one course

The Mount School, York (Girls) Course of five lectures on Historical Background of Present-day Economic Problems

- 1 Freedom and Control Mercantile System and Laissez-faire, the Classical Economists, Free Trade and Tariff Reform, Present Position
- 2 The Nation's Food A Self-supporting Country Industrial Revolution Corn Laws International Market in Food-stuffs Latest Policies and Practice
- 3 Currency and Credit Importance of Money Gold Standard Credit Foreign Investment Price Movements Reparations and Tariffs
- 4 Place of the State The Social Services and Growth of Efficiency in Administration Nineteenth-century Socialism—can it live with Capitalism? Insurance Nationalization
- 5 Industrial Adaptation Specialization before the Industrial Revolution The Workshop of the World Competition Present confusion of policies, planning a new world.

Haileybury College Terminal Course on England's Economic Problems.

Lectures on (1) The Post-War Boom and Slump (2) Return to Gold Standard, 1925 (3) Coal and 'General' Strikes. (4) War Debts (5) Crisis of Summer, 1931 (6) Steps to end Crisis

From these lectures arose discussions on (*inter alia*) (1) Whether the interests of the City and Industrialists are necessarily conflicting (2) Whether the men who went on strike were justified (3) How far America's refusal to cancel War Debts is reasonable (4) Whether 'Buy British' is a sensible slogan (5) Whether Empire Free Trade is possible or desirable.

IV INCLUSION OF ECONOMICS IN A COURSE OF A GENERAL CULTURAL NATURE

For one form at *St Paul's School* a special course has been arranged as follows

Economics General Economics with a view to understanding

(a) modern problems, (b) management of personal finances

History Short survey of Europe from the Dark Ages Detailed

European History, French Revolution to 1880, Russian

History, 1905-34 World History, 1914-34

Law Origin and Theory of Law History and main principles of English Law Commercial Law

Geography Ground covered by Dudley Stamp's Intermediate Commercial Geography

French and German According to individual needs

Latin Mainly translation

Philosophy (a) Practical principles of individual and social psychology, special emphasis on the use of the self Psychology of work and fatigue (b) Method collection and testing of data, principles of reasoning, special emphasis on problem of meaning and use of words

Physiology From point of view of hygiene, linked with psychology

Accounts A H Winterburn's *Practical Book-keeping*.

Art Selected aspects of the theory of Art and selected periods in its history (illustrated with epidiroscope)

See also General Appendix for complete schemes of work

CHAPTER 8
POLITICS OR PUBLIC AFFAIRS
FOREWORD

By ERNEST BARKER, LITT D., D.LITT , LL D

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THE study of politics is a study which is different in kind from the study of Latin or mathematics or even history. When you study these other subjects, you study certainties (though the certainties of history are not always certain) you begin by memorizing, and then you try to connect, in an ordered system, the facts you have memorized, and you do not need a practical experience of life before you begin the study (The further you go in history, the more you need such experience, but in its initial stages the study of history must necessarily begin with facts which do not lie in the range of experience, and are simply accepted as facts) The study of politics is more akin to the study of ethics than it is to the study of Latin or mathematics or history. It requires some previous experience of life. Before you can really study the theory of good and evil, you must have felt their tussle in your own conscience; you must have realized, in your own life, the existence of moral problems. Similarly, before you can really study the theory of right and wrong in politics, you must have undergone some sort of political experience; you must have felt what it is like to be confronted with some sort of political issue; you must have wrestled yourself, in some way, with the problems of conduct and organization which arise in human societies.

From this point of view it may be contended that a real study of politics is not possible for the young, who have still to collect the necessary experience, and it may even be urged that, if the study is begun prematurely, the young will only be taught to accept and proclaim unrealized generalizations, unrelated to their experience. This is indeed a genuine danger, which attends the teaching of history (when it seeks

to rise into generalities) as well as the teaching of politics. It is a danger to be avoided at all costs; for the clever boy who is willing to accept and proclaim some general theorem which he has not understood is on the way to intellectual dishonesty. But it is a danger which *need* not be incurred if the teacher of politics is careful to contract the scope of his teaching within the limits imposed by the powers and the capacities of his pupils. And this, as Mr Stewart's paper goes to prove, is not a difficult task. There is a preliminary or propaedeutic stage of the teaching of politics which can readily be brought within the compass of the young mind.

In the first place, it is possible, as Mr Stewart suggests, to prepare children for political experience by giving them the necessary basis and groundwork in some knowledge of the great main facts of contemporary history. This is not so much a matter of the teaching of 'current events', in the strict sense of that term, as it is of the teaching of the general trend which events have followed during the last generation, let us say from the death of the Queen in 1901 down to the present time. There has been a great revolution in our life, internal and international. To give children some idea of the New Age into which they have been born is to give them hooks of apprehension for the understanding of current problems, when they come, in later years, to study and follow the course of public affairs. Every teacher will find his own way of providing these hooks. Some will prefer to start with the present. 'This and that has just happened,' they will say, 'in order to understand it you must go back with me.' Others will start with the past, and lead their class down to the present. Whatever the method followed the aim will be the same—to introduce children to the New Age, and to give them some familiarity with the great processes of change in which their life is engaged.

A second, and no less valuable, way of preparation may be called disciplinary. This will take the form of teaching what may be called the grammar of politics. That grammar is twofold. In the first place it is necessary to teach children to understand the exact sense of political terms. In no

subject are words more loosely used. Over a hundred years ago, in 1832, Cornwall Lewis published a book 'on the use and abuse of some political terms'. Every generation (one might almost say every year) needs a new edition. Perhaps a teacher can do no more useful work than that of teaching his pupils to keep the political words which they use clean and sharp, like a good knife. That is one part of the grammar of politics. It naturally leads to another. This second part is concerned with the study of political institutions—in their bare bones, and as a matter of simple anatomy. This study will best be confined to the institutions of our own country. But it will not be merely a study of political institutions. It will also include social institutions, such as the Trade Union. The working of Britain depends—and to understand Britain we must always study this cardinal fact—not only on the political organs of the State, but also on the voluntary organs which exist and act by their side. A study of institutions which embraces the social as well as the political, and attempts to trace their interaction, will be redeemed from that danger of aridity which besets the isolated study of the political.

This would appear to be the whole extent to which the teaching of politics can be carried in schools. Political theory, in any strict sense of the word, belongs to the later stage of adult experience. But problems of political theory will arise in the course of the study both of contemporary history and of the grammar of politics, and no teacher will be able to avoid some incidental handling of these problems. But they will be best handled incidentally and, as Mr Stewart says, 'indirectly'—not as a separate part of the curriculum, but as inevitable outcrops of other parts, which can only receive tentative treatment at the moment, but must none the less be borne in mind and carried forward into the later days when they can really be faced in the light of real experience. It is good that the young should know, in advance, that there are such things as 'problems of the individual and the group, and of conflicting loyalties'; but except in the highest classes they can only be told that there is such and such a problem,

that it has occurred and may recur in this and that form, and that they will have one day to think about right and wrong and to choose their path.

The last word of this preface must be an echo of the end of Mr Stewart's argument. The political education of the young needs the work of the classroom, but it also needs the activity of school societies, in which boys and girls organize their own meetings and conduct their own discussions. It would not be untrue to say that undergraduate societies play almost as large a part in the political education of undergraduates as the lectures they attend and the essays they write on subjects of politics. What is true of the university is largely true of the school. There is also another thing which may be added in regard to the school. It is itself, in its organization and running, a little political world. It can be made—as a whole, and not merely in that part of its teaching which is given to politics—an introduction to the greater world. So to plan the school that its whole activity is a *præparatio politica*—this is the task of those who are charged with its care. The true hope of education in citizenship lies in this general planning. And when one considers the development of English schools in recent years, elementary as well as secondary, one finds good reason for believing that the hope is being realized. In their general organization within, and in the contact which they are establishing with the general world without, the English schools are showing that they are inspired by a civic ideal.

CHAPTER 8

POLITICS OR PUBLIC AFFAIRS

By MICHAEL STEWART, M A.

Assistant Master at the Coopers' Company's School

Need for the Subject

THE good citizen should be well educated in the general sense, that is to say, he should be anxious to ascertain the facts of any matter on which he has to judge, capable of avoiding fallacy, and sufficiently acquainted with the nature and past achievements of mankind to view modern affairs in true proportion. To this end all the subjects discussed in this book contribute, but the teaching of politics itself has this further purpose, to provide the technical as well as the general knowledge required for applying the mind to public affairs.

Thus technical knowledge may be classified under three heads

- (i) A knowledge of the political institutions of one's own country, and, in less detail, of other countries. Many voters, particularly at local elections, are not acquainted with our institutions, and do not know how nearly they may be affected by the work of government. Again, no one can judge a proposed policy if he does not know how laws are made in this country, and how long, in consequence, it would take to introduce the policy
- (ii) A knowledge of current events; i.e. the events of the present and the immediate past. Is it possible, for instance, to form a reasonable opinion of the work and potentialities of the League of Nations if one does not know the circumstances of its creation and the course of events since that time?
- (iii) Some knowledge of the elements of political theory. The policies of all parties contain some proposals for reform of the Constitution—the House of Lords, the

procedure of Parliament, the method of election. To judge these one must be able to consider the general question of the best form of legislative assembly

While we cannot give to every one a scholar's knowledge of these subjects, we can raise the general standard of knowledge. Any one actively engaged in political work realizes how many people do not know the powers of their own town council, have only the scantiest idea of the work of the League of Nations, and have not grasped the essential distinctions between democratic and dictatorial government. This is the situation we have to remedy

If future citizens are to possess mental equipment, they must be taught 'Politics', 'Public Affairs', or 'Citizenship'. To state this is to disagree with those teachers who hold that politics can be taught, or is even best taught indirectly, through history or economics. The examples given above show that politics is a distinct body of knowledge, and if we wish young people to have that knowledge we must teach it. No doubt history throws interesting sidelights on politics, and it is proper in the teaching of any subject to correlate it with others, geography likewise throws interesting sidelights on history, but we do not expect to teach history adequately in the geography lessons.

The fear is sometimes expressed that the teaching of politics as a separate subject from history will either be arid or will breed theorists who lack a background of knowledge. It is not, however, proposed to teach politics instead of history, but in addition. It would be a mistake to teach the working of Parliament without frequent reference to its history; but it is equally a mistake to suppose that its working can be properly explained in the course of a history lesson. We may, perhaps, resolve this difficulty by making the history course include a year for politics. During such a year the instruction would be on the lines suggested above, while the whole course would present the subject in its proper perspective.

Another objection to direct teaching is that the subject is too difficult. This is contrary to the experience of schools

which have made the attempt. The subject is not intrinsically more difficult than mathematics, and it possesses sufficient interest to excite the pupil to make the necessary effort. Often there may be a sad difference between the scope of a syllabus and the amount of knowledge retained at the end by the pupils; but this experience is shared by other subjects. We must not expect to turn out complete citizens from school, if we provide a groundwork of knowledge of political institutions, and the desire to understand political issues, our work is satisfactory. Nor can we neglect this task in the belief that the citizen will acquire the necessary knowledge later on in life. The uneducated voter commonly tries to judge questions as they come along: only occurrences which amaze and disturb him will draw him reluctantly to inquire into elementary facts and principles and to regret that he has not done so before. Events since 1931 have shown how few voters know how laws are made in this country. This ignorance is the difficulty of the honest politician and the opportunity of the charlatan.

Method of Approach

So far, the social reason for teaching politics has been suggested. But when the pupil asks, either in words or by his manner, 'Why do we learn this?' the reply, 'In order properly to fulfil your duties as a citizen in the future' is not convincing to him. We must therefore add the idea that political knowledge is not only necessary but interesting, that without it one cannot develop one's own personality to the full. For we are not concerned merely with developing citizens, but with enabling individuals to develop, showing them that being a citizen is an enjoyable part of that development, helping them to realize that, in the Athenian phrase, their minds are most truly their own when employed on the community's behalf. It is for this reason that the word 'politics' rather than 'civics' is used throughout this chapter. The former points out to the pupil the relation between the classroom subject and the world in which he will have to live: the latter suggests, by association, the idea of an

academic study. The choice of a term is not, of course, of major importance, but we should keep alive the idea that the subject is taught for its interest and the learner's pleasure; not only as a moral duty. Many boys take a keen interest in science, particularly in the development of wireless and new forms of transport, and so no doubt equip themselves for an intelligent understanding of a mechanical age. But their chief motive is not so much a desire to make themselves useful citizens as a simple pleasure in an interesting subject. Our aim should be to make an interest in politics appear as natural to-day as an interest in an aeroplane or a motor-car.

The Time-Table

One more initial problem remains. How is politics to be fitted into the time-table? In practice, many methods have been tried, which may be grouped thus

(1) A year's course of one period a week. The limited but increasing number of senior and central elementary schools which teach politics commonly introduce a course on this scale in the last year of school life. In secondary schools a year's course is sometimes given one or more years before the School Certificate, so that every pupil may have an introduction to the subject before leaving school. It may, however, be given after the School Certificate, and expanded to two or three years' more advanced and interesting work can then be done, but a large number of future citizens, leaving immediately after the School Certificate, will be uninfluenced. A few schools reserve the teaching of politics for the backward pupils, while the brighter boys and girls concentrate on the examination subjects: useful work may be done, even in these conditions. There are plenty of citizens who, while far from being fools, will always be slow at intellectual work, the community which neglects these, not troubling to win their loyalty for its institutions and liberties, is in a dangerous position. Further, when the backward pupils find themselves presented with a new and interesting subject it may help to preserve them from the defeatist

attitude towards schoolwork to which they are prone. This plan, however, may damage the prestige of the subject in the eyes of the school, and great patience and sympathy will be required from the teacher.

(ii) Short courses dealing with particular problems. These may be given to School Certificate forms in the part of the term following the examination; they are also suited for post-School Certificate pupils remaining at school for a short period.

(iii) The arrangement of the whole time-table of a particular form—usually of post-School Certificate pupils not proceeding to a university—to give a modern cultural education; here politics finds its place together with history, economics, biology, law, and other subjects.

Wherever possible, it is decidedly to be preferred that the course should last a year and that every pupil should receive some instruction. But if this is found impossible, any of the expedients described may reasonably and usefully be adopted. It is not the purpose of this chapter to advocate any particular formal course, but to make certain suggestions for using whatever time may be available. With this end in view it is now necessary to examine the matter and method of instruction.

Work in the Classroom

1. Political Institutions

Here two lines of approach are possible. One is to start with everyday affairs and detect, in the school and in the street, the work of the local authority, to inquire then into the constitution and powers of that body, and how it does its work. From this the teacher must naturally proceed to the Acts of Parliament which control local authorities, and so to Parliament itself. This method will be most successful where civic spirit is keen and the local authority enterprising. Care must, however, be taken that enthusiasm for local affairs does not swallow up time and prevent the course from reaching the wider field. A variant of this approach is to start by discussing the problems of organization and control which

are to be found in the family or at a camp. In this way the purpose of political institutions can be explained and the class will then study their nature with more interest. In the non-military camp the cooking, fetching, and carrying, work of many kinds, provide an economic and political problem, and when this is solved, there is the enjoyment of leisure. Thus, there is a close similarity to the general problem of human society, and the camp is therefore a particularly useful starting-point, not only for a simple account of institutions, but for more advanced work either in political theory or economic problems.

The second approach is that of beginning with the central government—Crown, Cabinet, Parliament, elections—then describing local authorities, and finally the co-operation of both in the performance of the functions of government. This is in accordance with the principle of the sovereignty of Parliament on which the British Constitution rests. In districts where the work of the local authority is not inspiring, the Crown and Parliament, because of their prestige, will serve to attract the pupil's interest.

The attraction and maintenance of interest must be our chief concern, whichever approach is adopted. It is therefore important to illustrate the teaching of institutions by reference to history and to current events. If the class are taking notes on Parliament, they may keep one side of the page to enter any events which concern parliamentary powers and procedure or a lesson may be set aside, periodically, for the class to relate and record events which have occurred during the period and are relevant to the institutions they have most recently studied. Ceremonial openings of Parliament, changes in the personnel of the Cabinet, ministerial activities, particularly those of the Ministry of Transport and Board of Education—all these will catch the pupil's attention, once he is accustomed to reading the newspaper, and can be used to illustrate the working of institutions. Interest is also sustained by the dramatic presentation of elections, legal proceedings, or League of Nations Assemblies. This acting will help the understanding for juniors or backward seniors; or,

performed by advanced students on a more elaborate scale, may serve to arouse interest in public affairs among the school as a whole. But unless it is carefully prepared it is not of much use; and the amount of acting which can be introduced into the teaching of politics is thus limited by time.

This section of the subject must include descriptions of the British Empire and the League of Nations. The Commonwealth shows how institutions greater than the national state can be created to meet special circumstances, and how national liberty may be reconciled with friendliness between nations. By studying the non-self-governing parts of the Empire the pupil is introduced to an important modern problem—that our economic organization brings all the parts of the world into relation to one another, while some are more powerful and more capable of using the world's resources than others, and that thus arises the question of a just relation between the two parts. The necessity for the League and other international institutions should become apparent to the pupil as he learns of institutions in general and apprehends two important principles: first, that a general desire for order and justice is useless unless it embodies itself in institutions, second, that institutions are successful just so far as the desire which they are meant to embody is genuine. Much criticism of international organization is based on a failure to recognize these principles. Teachers will not, however, be well advised to go into great detail over the organization of the League, unless with a senior class which has expressed a definite wish for such knowledge. The difficulty of visualizing an international institution is, for young people, very great, the point to be stressed is the activities of the League and its difficulties. The latter should particularly be mentioned. If the pupil is told that the League of Nations stops wars, he will either not believe it and relapse into the cynicism about international affairs which passes, in some quarters, for realism, or will conclude that, if this is so, there is nothing much for him to do. If, on the other hand, the League is presented as an instrument

with which wars may be stopped if nations resolve to utilize it, the teaching will be more accurate and probably more fruitful.

2 *Current Events*

The task here is to encourage the pupil to make use of the many sources of information available and to discriminate, both between the true and the false, and between the more and the less important. The recording of events relating to political institutions has been mentioned, this periodical recording can, however, be done with events of any kind. Each week or month there may be a lesson in which the members of the class mention any events of which they have read and which they think important, it will be the task of one pupil to note these and produce at the next such lesson a coherent and classified report. The class will soon see, when the report is read, which of the events were worth recording, and gradually a standard of values will be created which should help towards intelligent reading of newspapers in later life. On this question of relative importance the teacher may have to give some guidance, but such guidance must be based on reason and not mere authority. The process will test and improve the teacher's own standard of values, he will have to ask himself such questions as, 'Are the class—all of them—really wrong in supposing the speech of Mr So-and-So to be of less importance than the defeat of the Arsenal, and if so, why?' While athletic and intellectual achievement both play a part in school life, a boy tends to over-value the former. This tendency is proper to his age, but the process of growing out of it may need assistance. Some, indeed, never grow out of it, and sections of the press reflect the consequent wrong standard of values. Here lies a danger, since freedom of thought will not be well defended by a nation of whom many do not want to think. Attention should therefore be paid to this formation of a standard of values, whether by a lesson of the type described or by encouraging the pupils to read widely.

Further, when the children are thus recording events,

there are sure to be disagreements about fact, since different homes have different newspapers. It will thus emerge that the pursuit of truth is a difficult though fascinating process, and the way is prepared for more detailed research work. This may take the form of a 'Newspaper Class' where a large number of periodicals are used, and various groups in the class make themselves responsible for periodic reports on various branches of news, here, to guard against overspecialization, some time must be devoted to a study of the general trend of world events.

But the more a class studies its newspapers, the more will it realize that it needs a fuller knowledge of the immediate past than either the press or the ordinary history book provides. In this connexion we may notice the work done at Haileybury. One term will be devoted—i.e. one lesson a week for a term—to the understanding of the present position in China. Each lesson will take the form of a lecture followed by discussion, and the lessons will deal with the overthrow of the Manchus, the influence of Japan, the Kuomintang, Soviet China, &c. The next term may be used to study Russia from 1905 to the present day, or post-war Germany, or the Middle East in this century. Such a course is not easy to arrange without a teacher who has made recent events his special interest, but it is possible for any competent teacher to widen his pupils' interests and knowledge by the use of a text-book, good work has been done in this way with Mr. and Mrs. Cole's *Review of Europe*.

Interesting and important affairs may be found near at hand. Some schools teach current events by taking problems which are apparent in the locality and interspersing the lessons with visits to the appropriate places. Thus, if Public Health is being discussed, visits may be paid to housing estates, overcrowded areas, hospitals, or the town hall.

3. *Political Theory.*

This is the section of politics in the teaching of which fewest attempts have been made. Yet it is probably the most

important; without it, facts cannot be digested, nor institutions critically examined. The man who lacks theory tends, in time of prosperity, to praise all the institutions of his country, and at other times to clamour for the drastic amendment of whatever appears most to interfere with his own convenience, and it is the prevalence of this attitude which has made the adjustment of institutions a jerky and often violent process.

With younger children it is probably essential to approach the subject indirectly. When any lessons of the types so far mentioned are being given, points will arise in discussion which lead to the first principles of politics, it is desirable to give any such tendency free rein, even at the risk of considerable digression from the main subject. If this is allowed to occur from time to time the ground is prepared for a fuller and more formal treatment of the subject. When this latter stage is reached it is important that the class should do some reading by itself, since theory is not easily absorbed from oral instruction alone. If there exists in the school already a classical tradition—or, even among non-classical students, a cultural and aesthetic interest in the Greeks—parts of Plato, Aristotle, or Professor Zimmern's *Greek Commonwealth* are obviously suitable, they can, with careful handling, be made suitable to any intelligent class. Mention of the Greeks suggests dialectic as the best method of instruction, as indeed it is, once the pupils have reached a certain stage, but they must first understand what are the questions at issue. These may be summarized as (i) the purpose of political institutions, (ii) the problems of the individual and the group, and of conflicting loyalties, (iii) the problem of the development of institutions to meet changed circumstances, (iv) the forming of a standard of moral values by which to judge political issues. Lessons in political theory will not, of course, provide answers to these questions, since the search for their answer is never-ending; but the lessons should make the pupil understand that the questions are important, and show him how to set about his search for the answers.

Courses

By correlating what has just been said about subject-matter with what was said earlier about the time-table, we can trace the outline of a few possible courses

I. Yearly

- A. Juniors* *1st Term* Activities and constitution of the local authority, local government in general
2nd Term. The central control of local government Framework of the central government.
3rd Term Commonwealth and international government, broadening into discussion of current events with the class taking an increasingly active part

OR

- 1st Term.* Framework of British government, central and local, with reference to the general principles of politics, so far as age of class allows
2nd Term. Application of principles to Commonwealth and international affairs, examination of present international organization.
3rd Term Less formal—debates, discussions, dramatization of political activities, programme for term arranged if possible by class itself

- B Seniors* *1st Term* Political principles, with critical reference to present institutions
2nd Term British institutions, comparison with those of other countries
(It may be wise to reverse the order of these two sections; this will depend upon the type of pupil.)
3rd Term Study of a particular problem chosen by the class.

OR

- 1st Term.* Historical outline from Roman Empire to present day, to explain ideas and facts which dominate present situation
2nd Term. Advance of science, its effect on social problems
3rd Term The background thus drawn, deal with difficulties and possibilities of present situation

A senior group may also take a special text-book and model its course thereon. Further, if plans can be made for more than one year, the class itself may frame the programme for the second year, or the teacher may have his set programme for one term, and decide the rest after discussion with the class.

II. *Terminal.*

Little progress can be made with juniors in one term, unless in an outline description of British institutions. With seniors there are these possibilities:

- (a) A modern culture course, with politics, economics, biology, &c
- (b) The tackling of a special problem involving inquiry either into recent history, or into the working of one of the social services. Examples are the government of India, the Five-Year Plan, post-war international trade, housing.
- (c) The development of the British Commonwealth. The Statute of Westminster might serve as the central point of such a course. The class would then examine the events in the history of the Commonwealth leading up to that Statute, and the effects of its enactment on Imperial relations.
- (d) International affairs; the various countries being allocated to different members of the class for special study, with perhaps brief periodic recording of results on a map.
- (e) Newspaper class. Here the newspaper becomes a starting-point for discussions of many topics, and the class may thus be conducted through a course in general knowledge such as is required by certain examination syllabuses.

It must be understood that these are only a few suggestions out of a very wide range of possibilities; a range which will be made wider still as experience and the number of well-qualified teachers of the subject increase. Two general rules should be borne in mind. First, that it is wise to preserve great flexibility in the course, and to be ready to try any new possibility which suggests itself and appears promising, for even in a class all of whom are interested in the subject there will be many different reasons for that interest. Second, that whatever course is adopted, some regular individual work should be done by the pupils. This may take the form of

essays or the preparation of verbal reports on some aspect of the class's work; but in some form it should appear. Without it there is always the danger of the study of politics degenerating into gossip and the facile formation of opinion and taking of sides in the spirit of a gladiator rather than a citizen.

Outside Activities

Classroom work, however, is by no means the only medium of political education. Reference has already been made to visits, but this occurred in the section on classroom work because such visits are chiefly valuable if they form part of a course, and if the pupils realize that fact. Frequently, however, the times of visits and the places visited are determined by what the school can arrange. It is not impossible to fit the course to the available visits, or at least, if the course deals with the social framework in general, to stress the connexion between the lesson and the things the class have seen or are going to see on a visit. A visit need not be less enjoyable for the pupils because they have to discuss it or write about it afterwards—unless, indeed, they are generally encouraged to regard intellectual activity and enjoyment as opposites.

School journeys abroad are now increasingly common, and, when such a journey is in prospect, time is very profitably spent on a short course dealing with the recent history and present problems of the country to be visited. The traveller abroad may make one of two errors; he may be so little interested that his journey is no more than a trip, or he may be so anxious to form opinions that he generalizes from a few hastily-observed facts. The preliminary course, by stimulating interest and by providing a background of knowledge, guards against both dangers.

Of *visiting speakers* to the school the same may be said, the best value will be extracted if such occasions are made, so far as possible, an integral part of a set course of work. The rule cannot be strictly observed, an opportunity to secure a good speaker may arise and be unlikely to recur. It should

not then be neglected, but the teacher will find it useful to refer, wherever suitable, in later lessons, to points made by the speaker; for this will encourage careful and critical listening.

In a number of schools it is the practice for the head or one of the assistants to give occasional addresses on public affairs to the whole school. On certain anniversaries this is a natural and proper custom, but it is no more than the first step to real instruction in politics. It is doubtful whether a useful purpose is served by making such a function weekly or monthly. If more is aimed at than to rouse an initial interest, the instruction should be given to different groups of pupils by the methods most suitable to their ages.

School Societies

The final test of success in teaching a subject will be whether the pupils wish to learn more about it for themselves. If this measure of success is achieved in the teaching of politics, there will be no difficulty in running a society, among the senior members of the school, for the study of public affairs. So far as is possible, such a society should be officered and organized by the pupils themselves, members of the staff acting in merely an advisory capacity, or helping the pupils to make arrangements for which an adult is required. This is probably the best way of enabling young people actually to practise responsible self-government. Self-government in the affairs of the school itself is suited to some schools, but cannot easily be grafted on to others, and in any event cannot be real self-government, since the final responsibility lies with the teachers. The school must be carried on, whatever the children do, but it is possible to say truthfully to the members of a school society, once launched on its career, 'This is your society, if you cannot organize it, it will fall to bits.' Here is responsibility and the penalty of failure, and here, accordingly, is self-government.

But where a school has a tradition of self-government, or where special circumstances make it advisable to introduce

self-government, then there is no doubt that it can assist in the development of citizenship, and that important work has thus been done. Self-government is sometimes too narrowly conceived as a delegation of the power to keep order and punish to some of the senior boys. If this is all that is done, the school may present to the student of politics an interesting working model of an oligarchy; but this is not the end we have in view. Better results will be obtained if the representative institutions in the school, such as the Form Committees, are given a constructive task. They can to a large extent take over the organization of athletic and social events; and, after some experience of being taught politics, a class may help to frame its own syllabus, and become self-governing in the manner of an Adult Education Class.

The school society, then, self-governed as far as may be, can pursue a number of activities. Most frequent and most popular of these is debating, and there is no doubt of its value. It awakens interest, encourages the protagonists to inquire into facts, and gives practice in the art of arrangement of matter and convincing presentation. But it only yields its full value to the limited number of pupils who are specially gifted with the tongue; and it may breed lovers of argument rather than lovers of truth. A debating society alone is therefore insufficient; and an activity which needs special encouragement is the preparation and reading of papers which will require research into facts and a willingness to suspend judgement until the facts are ascertained. Such papers may be followed by discussion, where the atmosphere differs from that of debate since no one feels obliged to stick to an opinion once expressed, after fresh facts have been brought to his notice. Few people readily admit that the purpose of argument is to discover the truth rather than to get the better of one's opponent, and it will probably fall to the teacher's lot to urge discussion rather than recrimination on the youthful contestants.

If the school society takes the form of a Junior League of Nations Union Branch, it should interpret its function widely and discuss any matters likely to be discussed by the League

or the International Labour Office, and it will be well-advised to open its meetings to non-members so that acceptance of the League, being liable to challenge, shall become for the members a reasoned conviction, not a matter of habit. Attention should also be paid to the languages and cultures of other countries, as well as to the political opinions of their governments.

Above all, the school society should not bulk too large in the mind of the pupil—nor should the school itself. There is danger of this, often with the best scholars, who, on leaving may find their lives put out of gear by the absence of the accustomed centre of interest. If the adolescent of sixteen or seventeen is a keen politician, it is natural that he should begin to work for his party, or, if he is less partisan, that he should be using the public library, attending public lectures and in general adapting himself to the outside world. The school serves to equip the individual for his personal and social life; but it is not an end in itself.

The Teacher's Task

Finally, what must be the teacher's attitude throughout? All will agree that he must be fair, and not abuse his position for propaganda purposes, but the translation of this principle into an exact guide for conduct needs discussion. To avoid unfairness, he must, of course, have the common honesty to eschew wilful distortion of fact; but he needs also the judgement to draw the line between matters of fact and matters of opinion, and in this he will grow gradually more skilful by experience. When matters of opinion do arise, or when it is impossible to disentangle fact and opinion, he should state definitely where his own sympathies lie. For, unless he has no interest in the subject (and is consequently unfit to teach it), he cannot fail to have a decided opinion on the great political issues, and if he conceals this opinion he presents to the class an appearance of impartiality he does not possess, and thus secures an undue authority for his statements. However scrupulous a teacher may be, he can hardly

avoid some bias in the presentation of facts closely connected with disputed points; if the class knows where his bias lies, they can make allowance for it. It may perhaps be necessary to add that a teacher of politics should welcome the expression, by his pupils, of any shade of political opinion, he should himself set the example of being able to listen, with politeness and attention, to views to which he is himself intensely opposed.

If a class can be taken by more than one teacher—say, one for history, one for politics, one for economics—all of whom are concerned with education in citizenship, then their various and perhaps conflicting opinions will lessen the danger of biased teaching and show the pupils that differences of opinion do exist, and can be best dealt with by tolerance and freedom of expression. There is a possibility here that the class will be confused, but this will depend on the capacity of the teachers for their task. The supply of properly qualified teachers is one factor determining the extent to which education in citizenship can be carried, but this is a problem for the educational system as a whole, and beyond the scope of this chapter.

The teacher's task, then, is to set an example of tolerance, to provide information about facts, or to indicate sources of that information and to infuse the subject with life and vigour. If he can do this his pupils will discover that politics is not only a matter of taking sides, nor a disreputable occupation, fit for place-seekers, but an ennobling activity, exercising to their full capacity the qualities, intellectual and moral, of the human spirit.

APPENDIX TO CHAPTER 8

EXAMPLES OF SCHEMES OF WORK

This Appendix contains in a condensed form syllabuses, in use in certain schools and intended to deal with the questions discussed in this chapter. They are classified according to the method of approach to the problem.

1 A COURSE IN POLITICAL INSTITUTIONS, SERVING AS A FOUNDATION FOR LATER STUDY OF MODERN PROBLEMS.

Cheltenham Ladies' College

Pre-School Certificate. (For classes from which girls normally leave after taking School Certificate.) Study of 'How Great Britain is Governed' allied with elementary economics and some economic history.

Post-School Certificate. The first year given to economics, with papers read by the girls and debates. In the second year there is a study of the development of political ideas and of the constitutions and governments of the British Empire and modern Europe and America.

Coopers' Company's School (Boys).

Fourth Form. The economics class gives one lesson a week to the study of British institutions: Central and Local Government, the Raising and Spending of Public Money, Justice, Commonwealth and World Government. Some study of Current Events.

Sixth Form. Study and comparison of the various forms of government in the modern world.

2 A STUDY OF CURRENT EVENTS, FROM WHICH IS DEVELOPED A STUDY OF POLITICAL IDEAS

High School for Girls, Southport.

Lower Fifth. Guided newspaper reading, leading to discussion of such topics as: The Present State of Europe, Disarmament, President Roosevelt's Policy (which led to an inquiry into American history), the Work of a Member of Parliament.

Junior Sixth. Study similar to that in the Fifth, but with more examination of ideas, e.g. Party Government, Democracy and Dictatorship.

Senior Sixth. The study of ideas carried further, e.g. an inquiry into toleration, the position of women

A variant of this combination of ideas with practice is found at *Redland High School (Girls)*. Thus, the Sixth Form, studying housing, began by examining the question of a proper minimum accommodation and the best way of planning to provide this. They then studied in outline the recent history of housing legislation and the problems involved in slum clearance. In connexion with this work they visited the Bristol Housing Office and various new housing schemes. At another time Prison Reform was studied in a similar manner.

3 A MORE GENERAL COURSE, INCLUDING HISTORY AND GENERAL KNOWLEDGE

Cranbrook School (Boys Public Boarding).

Fifth Form One half-year for the study of 'The Legacy of Greece and Rome', with emphasis on Hellenic ideas
Second half-year for the study of Post-War Europe

Sixth Form 1st Year Outlines of English economic and social history, economics, and government

2nd Year (i) Medieval Civilization (ii) The Renaissance
(iii) Study of a book raising general philosophic, social, and political problems

The Classics are also used as a starting-point in one of the Fourth Form courses at the *Thames Valley County School (Boys)*, thus

1st Term History of Architecture Greek, Roman, Norman, Gothic, Renaissance, Modern (including the modern house).

2nd Term. History of Literature Greek, with modern parallels and contrasts.

3rd Term History of Thought Athens and Sparta compared Athenian Liberty Roman Order Early Greek Philosophy, serving as introduction to Elementary Logic

This school has also an unusual course, for boys, of 'Problems in Everyday Living'. This includes the boy's relationship to his family and friends; cooking, selection and care of clothes; the source, saving, and spending of the boy's and the family's income.

Farringtons School, Chislehurst (Girls).

Post-Matriculation 'Background of Twentieth-Century Problems'

- (i) Summary of events of Queen Victoria's reign
- (ii) Democracy; the working of government in the twentieth century, social legislation, the Parliament Act, future possibilities
- (iii) Imperial problems, 'The White Man's Burden' & 'Swaraj'
- (iv) The Storm Centres of Europe, interpretation of events leading to Great War.

4. COURSES IN POLITICAL IDEAS.

Belle Vue High School for Boys, Bradford.

'Ideas about Government'

How Government began, the Patriarchal System

Greek ideas about Government

Slavery and Feudalism

Modern ideas of Individual Liberty, the French Revolution, Parliamentary Government

Critics of our present system, Fascism, Socialism, Communism National and International ideals.

The making of Public Opinion.

CHAPTER 9

ENGLISH

By J E HALES, M A.

Late Staff Inspector of the Board of Education

THE modern recognition of 'English' as a basic subject in all secondary schools is in itself an important step towards realizing the aims of the present volume. The teacher of English whose conception of his work is truly liberal will be continuously helping to fit his pupils for effective citizenship.

'English' as Training in Thinking

Most attempts to define 'English' do not immediately suggest how much the teaching of English really involves. A normal definition would be 'The use and understanding of the English language, together with some study of English literature' But such a definition leaves out of account the fact that English is the mother tongue, and all that this fact implies English is not on a par with the other school subjects It enters into them all. As the Departmental Committee on the teaching of English said in their report 'English is not merely the medium of our thought, it is the very stuff and process of it. It is itself the English mind, the element in which we live and work.' Hence the teacher of English finds himself involved in nothing less than the general exercising of the intelligence His colleagues are, of course, collaborating with him, but a special responsibility rests on him.

The Use of English

It is by practice that we learn to use the mother tongue, and the business of the teacher is to organize the practice But unorganized practice is always going on, and in the early stages of his work the teacher will be much concerned with correcting and systematizing the results of that unorganized

practice. He may need to follow a definitely mapped out language course, and he will certainly need to deal systematically with the functions of the parts of speech and the structure of the sentence. There are certain pitfalls from which his pupils will never be safe without a firm foundation of grammar. But almost from the outset training in the use of English transcends grammar books and English manuals. It is no mere negative process of indicating mistakes and calling attention to rules. It is cultivation of the habit of thinking. Most of the mistakes that are pilloried in Fowler's *Dictionary of Modern English Usage* are due, not to ignorance of grammar, but to confused thinking. Only clarity of thought can remove them. The question which the teacher will most often be putting to his pupils is: 'What do you really mean?'

A teacher of composition is not content because his pupils' power of expression suffices for what they have to say. He wants what they say to be worth saying. He is constantly trying to raise their thinking power to a higher level, and he thereby extends their power of expression. Some of them may, at the very beginning of their school course, already have a command of English which is practically adequate to the modest requirements of such thinking as they are disposed to do. They can, when they are careful, write fluently and fairly correctly on simple subjects, can tell a story or describe an experience in English which passes muster. An inexperienced teacher may read one of their productions through and feel rather at a loss as to how he ought to deal with it before setting the next exercise. He approaches it from the language side, but on that side he finds nothing particular to do. But if he approaches it from the thinking side he will probably find plenty to do. Has the mind of the pupil done any real work on his supply of raw material? Has any attempt at selection and arrangement been made, is there any sense of proportion? Are irrelevant and trivial matters dwelt on while the significant is missed, is the story made interesting or the description convincing by graphic details, or by imaginative touches which indicate the writer's own feeling?

Observation is the mental process which needs stimulating first. If the pupils fail to describe it is generally because they have not really seen. The teacher needs to organize practice in observation, and in the play of the mind upon the impressions obtained, till these are defined in words and become ideas which are then associated with other ideas. Such practice should, moreover, lay the foundation of the invaluable habit of seeking knowledge at first hand and may help the pupils later on, in the various affairs of life, to see things with their own eyes and judge for themselves.

If the results of the teaching of composition prove disappointing it is often because the pupils have been writing essay after essay the marking of which has absorbed the teacher's energies without leaving him time to organize practice in thinking. Those do not necessarily write best who write most, any more than those talk best who talk most. Power of expression, in the mother tongue, is developed in response to the demands of increasing power of thought, and power of thought is developed through observation, reading, and discussion.

It is not suggested, of course, that equilibrium necessarily obtains between power of thought and power of expression. It is often noticed that a particular pupil—or a particular author—is more gifted in the one direction than in the other. And it often happens that a disposition to think manifests itself rather suddenly, especially in sixth form pupils whose minds have been newly awakened to serious interests—social, political, scientific, artistic, religious, philosophical. Their use of language may then seem more defective than it did at an earlier stage when little strain was put on it. Their thinking, or rather their effort to think, has outrun their power of expression, they need terms which they cannot yet use with precision, their writing is clumsy, halting, obscure, incoherent, and their thinking itself is bound to be vague and confused until their power of expression has caught it up. But if their interests have been aroused the chief point has been gained; their faults are stages on the road of improvement. There is much more promise in a fumbling endeavour

to express an involved thought than in the slick retailing of commonplace.

Pupils at this stage are most interesting to teach. The main thing to be done for them is to show them how to teach themselves, through practice and imitation. Their teacher can help them best by putting before them the models most suited to meet their particular needs and indicating the points which they should especially notice. Certain passages should be studied in close detail, after the manner described in Chapter 10, and since these will be sharply imprinted on the pupils' minds their substance as well as their style should be memorable. Among them may well be included pieces of social and political insight and wisdom. Many such passages might be found in the volume of *British Political Orations* in the 'Everyman' series, in Burke's speech on Conciliation with America, in such writers as Ruskin, Froude, Seeley, Leslie Stephen, Matthew Arnold, Lord Morley, and in many living authors.

The Understanding of English

Similarly, the understanding of English is largely a matter of ability to think. It is a different matter from the understanding of a foreign language (so far, at least, as school boys and girls are concerned). It is generally tested, at the School Certificate stage, by means of a précis or paraphrase, and these are commonly styled language tests. But they are more than language tests, they are also tests of the level which the pupil's thought can reach. A language test in Latin or French is much more strictly a *language* test. It tests knowledge of the vocabulary, structure, and idiom of the language. It is unlikely to do much towards testing general power of thought because the level of the pupil's knowledge of Latin or French is bound to be much below the level of his power of thinking. But the extent of that power—the power of apprehending ideas, of perceiving their relation, and of generalizing—is the chief thing demonstrated by a précis and, as a rule, by a paraphrase.

Of course in English, as well as in foreign languages, much

verbal work is required. In the lower forms there must be much deliberate acquisition of vocabulary and study of structure and idiom. And in authors whose style is antiquated or grotesque or grandiloquent the difficulties may be those of language rather than of thought. But there is no need to dwell on the verbal side of the teaching of English; it is commonly over-emphasized at the expense of the thinking side. A book in which language difficulties abound is the easiest kind of book to teach, there is something definite and obvious for the teacher to do and sometimes he is tempted to spend too much time upon it. To explain verbal meanings and allusions is a simpler task than to organize the necessary practice in exploring the thought of an author.

English should not be taught as if it were a foreign language. As the pupil passes up the school his English practice should consist less and less in the linguistic exercises which form the staple of most manuals of English, but more and more in following, restating, compressing, and discussing an author's thought, practice in an ever widening range of English being incidentally obtained. For coping with thought is what the understanding of the mother tongue implies and it is, in effect, so interpreted in the School Certificate Examination. The candidate is not usually confronted by recondite words or perplexing phraseology. The actual language may be quite simple. But he is required to show whether his mind can move easily on a relatively high plane of thought. If we find ourselves unable to master a treatise on bimetalism or relativity (which may or may not be lucidly composed) our position is not essentially different from that of the boy who can make nothing, say of some diplomatic correspondence which he is required to summarize. It is an intelligence test, not a mere language test, that we and he have failed to pass. As was stated at the beginning, the mother tongue is not merely 'a language', it is the stuff and process of our thought.

The Teaching of Literature

Does literature help to produce good citizens? The ancients thought that this was its essential function. "To the Greek in

his best days', says Mr. F. L. Lucas,¹ 'good poetry meant, above all, poetry that bred good men'. 'For many centuries', says Mr. Carritt,² 'it was almost universally held that it was the function of poetry and of art and indeed beauty in general to make us better men and that the truths which they gave us were the truths of morality.' The humanists pointed to the examples of the heroic virtues contained in the Classics. The courage of Achilles, the wisdom of Ulysses, the devotion of Nisus and Euryalus were regarded as models for imitation.

But we recognize to-day that the question is not so simple as was once supposed. It is possible, of course, to use literature for purposes of instruction and edification. It would be easy to compile an anthology of poems in praise of liberty or a list of novels from which social and political knowledge could be gained. There is no objection to this so long as we do not suppose that using literature for propaganda purposes is using it as literature. There are still many people who judge literature, as an art, by the amount of moral teaching they find in it. But they are judging it by an irrelevant standard. They are exalting its accidents above its essence. Shelley writes, in a famous passage,³ 'Nor is it for want of admirable doctrines that men hate, and despise, and censure, and deceive, and subjugate one another. But poetry acts in another and diviner manner. . . The great instrument of moral good is the imagination and poetry administers to the effect by acting upon the cause'. Sir Henry Newbolt, in an essay on *Poetry and Politics*, writes: "To awaken stimulate and change human feeling is the great function of Poetry, and the Poet is exerting a hundred times more beneficent power when he is doing this than he could ever exert in the more prosaic office of a legislator."

These quotations show us where the educational value of literature is to be found. It is in the realm of feeling rather than of intellect. It has been pointed out in Chapter 4 that the fundamental problem in training for citizenship is how to develop the necessary motive force, how to encourage the

¹ Warton Lecture, 1933

² *What is Beauty?* E. F. Carritt.

³ *A Defence of Poetry*.

right emotions, values, and 'sentiments'. It is here that the arts (and especially literature, since its raw material is life) come to our aid. Great literature communicates to us emotions which we recognize instinctively as fine in quality.

It might be objected that literature, and especially poetry, belongs to those self-regarding aspects of education which our first chapter distinguishes from those which make for consciousness of membership of the community; that it is an escape from life into a realm of aesthetic emotion which, however fine in quality, has nothing to do with ordinary social life. It is true that poetry may be an escape, and most of us often feel the need of a means of escape. Those are fortunate who can find it in great poetry. But their intimacy with the great poets can never engender in them an indifference to the lives of their fellows. They will find it a source of spiritual enlargement and enriched sympathies. Purely aesthetic emotions do not, in the great poets, remain sterile. They beget moral emotions. They become motives. How often do we find the poets realizing that mere sensuous or aesthetic emotion is not enough! It must ripen into active sympathy with humanity. We see the process in Wordsworth.

Farewell, farewell the heart that lives alone,
Housed in a dream, at distance from the Kind!
Such happiness, wherever it be known,
Is to be pitied, for 'tis surely blind.¹

And again,

not as in the hour
Of thoughtless youth; but hearing oftentimes
The still, sad music of humanity.²

We see it in Keats,

And can I ever bid these joys farewell?
Yes, I must pass them for a nobler life,
Where I may find the agonies, the strife
Of human hearts.³

Among prose writers Ruskin and Tolstoy afford striking

¹ *Stanzas suggested by a picture of Peele Castle in a storm.*

² *Tintern Abbey.*

³ *Sleep and Poetry*

instances of the aesthetic emotion growing into intense moral emotion.

Literature may of course describe ignoble feelings and shameful deeds, but in great literature the feelings with which the descriptions are tinged, the feelings which are communicated to us when the whole is surveyed, are uplifting. They cannot be ignoble; they cannot even be self-regarding because they are universal. Literature may be called 'criticism of life' because it applies to life its own independent assessment of life's values. It is indifferent to wealth and success and happiness, as such. It does not judge conduct. Its purpose is to communicate fine feeling and it values that which excites fine feeling. It is not a mere transcript of life, though it is often taken for one and its standards of value are often confused with those of real life, especially by people who demand a happy ending and are eager to pass moral judgements on characters and actions in drama and fiction. It is not ethical teaching. None the less it is hardly possible to overestimate the formative influence of great literature. To experience life as a great artist experiences it is to gain a new scheme of values which educates our attitude to real life. From the searchlight which literature throws on human nature and human relations we gain self knowledge, a wider sympathy and understanding and a deeper sense of oneness with our fellow men.

Books in General

What has been said so far refers only to Pure Literature, literature, that is, which is not 'applied' to any ulterior purpose. Many books, of course, are compounds of pure and applied literature, some novels, for example, are largely propaganda.

Most of the books included in school syllabuses are capable of being classed as pure literature. But the pupils' reading should be at least as varied as the subjects on which they are expected to express themselves and the styles of which they will need command. They will be expected to practise argument, persuasion, scientific description, definition, ex-

planation, &c , and they could not do themselves justice in all these fields on a diet of pure literature.

Among books of border-line type biographies might well be read more than they are, with the admitted object of inspiring admiration and imitation. Generous ideals are best inspired by example. If young people are disposed to study the lives of great pioneers in the advancement of knowledge and the service of man, such as Shaftesbury, Wilberforce, Faraday, John Howard, Elizabeth Fry, Florence Nightingale, Livingstone, Gordon, Mme Curie, General Booth, let them by all means be encouraged to do so.

Examinations

Some reference to examinations in English seems desirable because 'English' is so refractory a subject from the examination point of view. So far as the use and understanding of English are concerned teacher and examiner can work fairly harmoniously together. In literature this is more difficult. The best that the pupil gets out of his literary reading is not something which he can readily set down on paper. It is that formative experience which he cannot talk about and which a wise teacher will not expect him to talk about. The object of the teacher of literature is to lead his pupils to appreciate and enjoy it. He achieves his highest success when he finds them preferring good books; he strives to quicken and reinforce intrinsic motives for such preference. He is particularly careful not to allow any irksomeness or tedium to be associated with the literature lessons, that would defeat his aims. He is sowing a seed which he hopes may grow; he asks himself what the result of his work will be in ten or twenty years time. Examinations in literature, in spite of the pains that examiners take to reconcile their questions with the nature of the subject, are liable to cut across the line of approach of a good teacher. Literature is not a knowledge subject, but knowledge is what examinations most readily test. It is easy to discover whether a book has been conscientiously 'got up'. But what matters more is what the

pupil has felt, and it is difficult for an examiner to discover that, nor does he wish to encourage the getting up of 'appreciation' for the purpose of answering his questions. Further, the kind of stimulus which examinations provide is a dangerous ally to the teacher of literature. It is certainly potent, but it is an extrinsic one and it passes with the examination and meanwhile it may have been stifling those intrinsic motives which he desires to intensify and render permanent. But most teachers of literature are enthusiasts for their subject and strive to keep the right appeal in the foreground of their pupils' minds.

Practical Considerations

What actual difference will a keen sense of the need for education in citizenship make to a teacher of English? He will seek in every way to make his teaching broadly practical. The doctrine that education is preparation for life will be to him not merely a pious belief but a compelling motive. All teachers accept this doctrine, but as specialists, apt to think in terms of loyalty to their subjects, they may tend to regard these too much as ends and not enough as means. The teacher of English is specially concerned with the formation of intellectual character, the habit, that is, of sane and vigorous intellectual reaction to environment. To this end he will make it his main endeavour, in the first three or four years of the course, to promote in his pupils willing intellectual activity, and if it is to be willing it must depend on incentives that are within, it must be linked with aims and interests which are theirs and not only his. He will therefore adapt his subject and his methods to motives, interests and instincts which are native in his pupils, will work in harmony with them, and build up intellectual character out of them. He can bide his time in the earlier stages, while they are forming the habit of using their minds through methods that harmonize with their natures, until he has to call upon them to submit that habit to the discipline of more serious and systematic courses of study.

A teacher of English is bound, from the nature of his subject, to possess power of sympathy and insight and so to be able to enter into the minds of his pupils. He will note that they will throw themselves wholeheartedly into any piece of creative work that has captured their imagination. They wish to do and to make as well as to be taught. They are especially fond of dramatic work; they will compose plays themselves and, for the purpose of performing a play, they will learn by heart long passages of verse or even prose which, if presented to them merely as repetition, would not appeal. Their spirit of romance can be drawn upon, and given opportunities. They will laboriously hunt up information about things, sometimes quite unlikely things, which they have themselves invested with a romantic appeal. They will do a great deal of thinking when it is disguised as a game. They have an instinct for co-operation. 'English' is the most elastic of 'subjects' and can easily be connected up with natural motive forces such as these.

Through 'English' they can also get useful preliminary practice in certain accomplishments which may some day serve them in good stead as members of the community. Short lectures by pupils on subjects which they have made their own, and also debates and discussions, should often figure in the programme. Through these they may learn betimes to see both sides of a question, to subject prejudice to reason and to argue dispassionately. Use can also be made of debates to familiarize them with the procedure of local councils, of Parliament, and of the Council and Assembly of the League of Nations. Clear and correct speech, and proficiency in reading aloud, which do not enjoy the shelter of the examination system, should of course be treated as of primary importance—here dramatic work will be very helpful.

The treatment of reading, again, needs to be considered from a realist point of view. Young people do not, as a rule, need to form the habit of reading, but the habit of reading to good purpose. Some learn early to go to books for valuable information or experience, some desire escape into a world

of sensation and excitement which makes ordinary life seem disappointingly tame, some run their eyes lazily along lines of print till reading becomes for them merely a mental opiate. The formative influence which their private reading may be exercising upon his pupils is a matter to which the teacher cannot remain indifferent. He will certainly not restrict 'reading' to the formal teaching of set books. It may well be that the best thing for his pupils is to spend much of their time reading to themselves in the library while he acts as consultant, and supplies guidance and stimulus rather than information. It is very important that they should not come to regard literature as a rather pointless knowledge subject, or expect to be perpetually under instruction instead of reading for themselves.

Sixth Forms

In sixth forms the specialists in English have of course a limited and prescribed programme to follow. But non-specialists will also give some periods to English and in certain periods specialists and non-specialists may be grouped together. No narrow conception of 'English', e.g. as the study of 'pure' as distinct from 'applied' literature, or as merely the writing of essays, should regulate the employment of these periods. In many schools they are partly used for the consideration of questions of to-day and for instilling, through reading or discussion, the principles and knowledge which condition an intelligent approach to them. Mr B. A. Howard's book *The Proper Study of Mankind* admirably illustrates such training. Intelligent boys and girls take a deep interest in present day ideas and happenings. A scrutiny of lists, made by several hundreds of sixth form pupils, of books read by them in their spare time shows that they read, or sample, modern books of every description. This is a fact of which their educators should take cognizance; this private reading can be the starting-point for valuable discussions on aspects of the art of living in the middle third of the twentieth century.

Newspapers and magazines, especially such a paper as *The*

Listener, are among the facts in the pupils' environment which ought to be taken into account. Individual pupils are sometimes made responsible for posting up or filing cuttings from newspapers. It should be recognized that well-written contemporary articles on social and political questions may deserve careful study, for the sake both of their form and of their content. The publication of reports (such as that of the Simon Commission), and the delivery of speeches which may help to make history should not pass unnoticed even if all that can be done is to read aloud some extracts from them. If a teacher thinks fit to use, for example, the Covenant of the League of Nations, or the Highway Code, or the Laws of Cricket, or part of an Act of Parliament as the basis of a lesson on practical expression in English, it is all to the good that he is also establishing valuable contacts with important aspects of real life.

Senior pupils, under the guidance of their teacher, might select specimens of journalism treating the same topic from different standpoints and subject them to comparison and critical examination. It is important that they should realize that not every lucid and persuasive statement in print can be accepted at its face value, and that, as Mr. Baldwin has observed, 'If there is any class to be regarded with suspicion in a democracy it is the rhetorician—the man who plays on half-educated people with fallacies which they are incapable of detecting. More than one democracy has been wrecked by that'¹

Successful sixth form general culture on these lines demands a teacher with imagination who is not overawed by scholastic preconceptions about subjects and methods in education. He must realize what attitude of mind and what kind of knowledge are prerequisites for serviceable thinking on any subject, and must teach not only what he was once taught, but what he is himself now learning.

We pride ourselves upon laying sound foundations, but we might do more to ensure that they are the right foundations for the building we wish to see established upon them, and

¹ *Address on Political Education to the Philip Stott College*

that our pupils have at least some sketch plans of it and are minded, in due course, to complete it. We should look upon English as the essential basis of a liberal education and should aim, like the Humanists, at the freeing of the human reason, the development of man's full powers and the production of the good citizen of a free country.

CHAPTER 10

CLASSICS

FOREWORD

By GILBERT MURRAY, LL D , D LITT., LITT.D., F B A.

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A HIGH and complex civilization, like that of Europe and America, cannot be kept going without constant vigilance: to be preserved it must from time to time be reformed, and both the preservation and the reform make demands on a people's understanding and character. They need a certain standard of citizenship, and in most civilized countries there is a general agreement as to what that word means. The good citizen, it would be agreed, must be public-spirited, he must be honest, he must be reliable, he must be tolerant; he must obey the agreed law and, where he thinks it needs change, follow legitimate methods to get it changed by persuasion, not by violence: he must look on his fellow citizens as fellow citizens, not as enemies.

But the more complex and delicate a machine, the more disastrous and far-reaching is every dislocation and maladjustment, and to-day, when the whole fabric of society is still suffering from the direct and indirect consequences of the World War, one of the symptoms of its derangement is a loss in many great nations of the very idea of citizenship. The citizen, who shares in the government of his country, is being replaced by the slave, who merely obeys the will of the stronger, and the very principles on which civilized society has hitherto tried to base itself are being challenged or forgotten. Losing trust in reason, men are beginning to 'think with their blood' and are praised for doing so: legitimate government is being superseded by usurpation, which by its very nature, since it cannot depend on law, depends on violence. Terrorism, which used to be the last word in crime, is becoming recognized as the normal method of dealing with political opponents, and the systematic concealment of

perversion of truth by ministers of propaganda as the normal method of dealing with facts. Innocence is no protection against prison, and prison, by a hideous relapse to barbarism, commonly implies torture.

Against this collapse of civilization—for, if it is not a collapse of civilization we must begin to re-define all our terms—Great Britain and most of the other old constitutional nations, amid all their economic troubles, are successfully holding their own. Indeed, the countries which have collapsed are just those which have never had prolonged experience of free institutions or learned the difficult art of using them. Great as the achievements of some of them have been in other departments of life, they have never learned what the Greeks called 'civic virtue', and without a large allowance of that quality free institutions cannot endure. If we want to preserve Law and Freedom we must educate a nation of good citizens.

Of course 'civic virtue' is not a thing that can be taught like so much arithmetic. It is a moral quality and mostly of slow growth, dependent largely on half-conscious factors of example and tradition. Yet good citizenship has an intellectual side also. It is vitally important that the citizen should really think—with his brain, not with his blood; that he should not only be free to seek the truth and to speak the truth, but should really care to do so, that he should form the habit of weighing evidence and not merely believing what he wants to believe, and lastly that he should know something about man and about human society.

No doubt the first business of a teacher is to teach his subject. If he has undertaken to teach the multiplication table and in the end his pupils do not know it, it is vain for him to plead that he has taught them to wipe their boots carefully and hold enlightened views on Russian art. That is clear. None the less it does tell against a teacher if his pupils tend to have bad manners and dirty faces, or if they are conspicuous for lying and stealing. He does teach, and must teach, for good and for evil, a great many other things beside his subject.

Education is a mystery. A good teacher seldom knows exactly what he is doing or how he does it. But it does not seem unfair to demand of a teacher, in this country at this critical time, that while considering how to teach his subject, he should bear in mind how vitally important it is to the world that the younger generation should grow up good citizens.

This chapter is concerned with the teaching of Classics at the secondary school. If I were speaking to an Honours Greek Class at a university I might expound to them how Aristotle regards politics as being the ethics of the state, the art by which the state can learn to behave 'nobly and justly'. But Aristotle is not part of the normal school course, and the practical problem before us is to show how the ordinary teaching of classics in school can help in the training of the good citizen. This subject is ably and diversely treated by the three teachers whose contributions follow. For my own part I should say that to understand the duties of a citizen a student needs two things: first, he needs to escape from the tyranny of what Ruskin has called 'masked words' and Norman Angell 'secret assassins'; he must be able to see the thing behind the word, the meaning behind the form, of what he says or reads, and not remain the slave of contemporary catchwords. Secondly, it is at least extremely useful to him, if not absolutely essential, to have some knowledge of the methods followed by previous societies which had to deal, in quite different surroundings, with essentially the same problems as ourselves.

I think the study of classics may in a very special degree be made to achieve these two desirable ends. First comes the fight with the 'masked words'. As Professor Webster points out, a piece of Greek or Latin prose composition is not merely an exercise in translation, it involves a preliminary analysis of the meaning that lies behind the language, in which perhaps hardly a single word will escape challenge. There is no process comparable to this in the study of a modern language.

The power of dealing with language must come first; then follows the study, in manageable form—for the remains of

ancient literature comprise only a comparatively small number of rather short books—of almost all sides of the great civilization which preceded ours and was faced by such very similar problems. Here Greece and Rome are complementary to one another. In Greece we meet with the finest treatment of the problems of thought, the problems of the citizen's rights and duties, of freedom and the rule of law, of the search for truth and justice, of the duty of loyalty either to some small local 'city' or to the world itself as 'One great City of Gods and Men'. In Rome we find a treatment of the problems of empire and the policing of the world, which, with all its tragic faults, is the most effective that was ever known before the nineteenth century. Granted general good intentions the most dangerous type of citizen is he who lives in the prison of his own immediate desires and economic interests, and has only the fashions of the moment as instruments of his thinking. The intelligent study of classical antiquity can at any rate liberate him from that prison, and save him from the dominion of the unanalysed phrase.

CHAPTER 10

CLASSICS

I. CLASSICAL CULTURE AND THE MODERN WORLD

By J E BARTON, M.A.

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BEFORE democracy and the Industrial Revolution, our privileged class derived its civic training from the whole environment of a compact and homogeneously educated society. Nobody in the eighteenth century would have included 'citizenship' in the conscious programme of a boy's schooling. Personal obligation to the body politic, bound up inextricably with the inherited conception of the gentleman and the gentlewoman, was taken for granted. Such phrases as 'playing the game', or 'the team spirit', would hardly have been understood at an eighteenth-century prize-giving. 'Organized games and corporate life', which in secondary school circles to-day are credited with not a little moral and political significance, make no show in Gray's poetic catalogue of Eton sports and hobbies. The boys of that age and class, when they were not doing Latin verses, seem to have amused themselves naturally. Later on, they went out and built the British Empire.

Classical Learning once the Privilege of a Caste

Georgian classical culture was narrow in its sympathies, because it existed only for the well-born and the talented. The gentry, and the accomplished artists and artisans who served them, enjoyed without disquieting reflections a civilization whose arts and crafts, customs and amenities, were nothing if not traditional and orderly. Perhaps the proletariat gained something indirectly. The crudest Georgian broadsheet has dignity by contrast with the headlines of our own evening papers. But on the whole the populace of that day had no more share in the finer spiritual fruits of civilized life

—perhaps less—than the slaves of antiquity. Certainly the age of George III in England cannot be compared with the thirteenth century, as regards the chance of the poorest to play a part in communal living, and to enjoy some sense of personal value in the social scheme.

The New Impulse to a Wider Social Creed

By the end of the nineteenth century, thanks to democracy, science, and machinery, the old social order had been utterly disintegrated. Ages of disintegration are always 'modern' and self-conscious. They are forced to be so. We are compelled to re-formulate a social ideal, and this ideal of our century, both in and out of school, is to build up once more a stable and unified order, on the incalculably wider basis that accords with prevailing democratic and internationalistic aims. Whether we all regard the present vote-machinery of democratic institutions as finally sound is irrelevant here. What we do all believe in, I presume, is the proved capacity of most people, whatever their birth or occupation or degree of talent, to profit by guidance and environment in the way of gaining a wider view of social happiness, and a more generous view of the contribution which they can make to it individually. This is brought home to anybody who acquaints himself with the better-organized modern industries, and the range of more or less enlightened activities that are now connected with them. Not only material standards of living but civic standards also, in the moral sense, have been measurably raised since the War. Most people pay lip-service to the creed of goodwill and mutual understanding. The doctrine, at least, is prevalent. However difficult the practice of it may be or the application of it to concrete problems.

Classical Teaching and the Eternal Humanities

In the schools, it goes without saying, we hear a great deal of this modern idealism. I sometimes wonder if the maxim of 'each for all'—so popular in current school ethics—is not

in some danger of losing reality by repetition. Diverse opinions are held on the question, how far a direct and systematic type of 'civic' instruction will promote the main end. To discuss this is not my purpose, but no teacher, to whatever degree of specialism he may have pushed his own subject, can legitimately ignore its probable or possible bearing on the future citizenship of the pupil. The best type of modern classical teacher, whose aim has been to widen the application of classical studies and to give them a more fruitful connexion with problems of our own time, is convinced that some sort of contact with the classics is essential to a balanced perception of human and social values in the modern world. No sensible advocate of classical teaching will ignore the immense claims of those other subjects which arise immediately from the facts and necessities of the age. But while the exact sciences enlarge our survey of the universe, and ensure the advantages, such as they are, of comfort and hygiene and speed in our material life, there remain the bed-rock laws of human nature and society. For understanding of those things, what better starting-point has been devised than a thoughtful study of the works and history of Greece and Rome? Not only classical dons and schoolmasters, but men whose eminence belongs to quite other departments of learning, now freely express their opinion that the classics, brought into line with living thought, are invaluable in contributing to education a sense of the humanities, which lie behind all citizenship. A wit has said that a classical education is an excellent thing to have forgotten. No better tribute could be paid, implying that the factual side of classical reading and history matters little, compared with the influence they leave on the sympathies of the learner, and on his general point of view.

Why Victorianism Disparaged or Misunderstood the Classics

It is easy to see why the classics were most decried in the second half of the last century, when middle-class individualism was rampant to the point of crudity. The short-sighted complacency of an age which had built up commercial

prosperity by a frank acceptance of public ugliness and squalor had naturally little use for those abiding principles of visible orderliness and social unity which are the essence of the truly classical 'The known rules of ancient liberty', as Milton called them, assumed that man's evolution is sadly incomplete until he has realized his function in the commonwealth. All the sanctions of religion itself were bound up with a civic consciousness, and he who was not a good citizen could not hope to rank as a good man. This fundamentally classical conception of life is externalized in all the forms of typical Greek art. A Victorian building is seen at a glance to be nothing more than an eclectic jumble of ideas, often incongruous and nearly always ill-proportioned, devised out of his own head by some clever individual who was striving for effect. A Greek temple or sculpture is not felt to be capricious in this way. It denotes the genius of a community, rather than the invention of any one person. The classical artist is only great in so far as he incorporates in his work the stable and permanent ideals of life which are at once traditional and living in the minds of his fellow-citizens. Idiosyncrasy only creeps into classical art when it begins to decline, and the decline of art means the decline of the whole state. Almost without exception, the poets and creative writers, whom we now regard as important in the latter half of the nineteenth century, were people who reacted from their environment, becoming more or less scornful critics of the society in which they lived. For that age of individualism, art consisted in originality—originality in contrast with the conventional attitude to life of men in general. In a classical age, the literary or plastic artist could find full scope for his personality *within* the social, religious, and civic conventions which all men accepted, and which bound them together in a political order.

The Classical Renaissance in European Art of Our Time

Classical education, so far from being alien to the spirit of our time, is just the food which young people need in view of the widespread new social and political aspirations which fill

the present world. The general movement of our age is nothing if not classical, as anybody must feel who takes a general survey of modern European civilization in its outward and visible forms. The socially-minded twentieth-century artist or engineer, concerned with the reconstruction and replanning of our cities, with suitable housing for vast new populations, and with all the new needs of commerce and industry and transport, falls back inevitably on those orderly and architectural principles which are classical in origin. The newer masters of constructional design, working in fresh materials and with new scientific resources, are everywhere influenced by the classical notion of beauty as a product of harmony between plan and function, treatment and material. Just before the recent disturbances in central Europe, three famous cosmopolitan architects outlined a scheme for what they called a 'European Mediterranean Academy', and defined their aim as that of leading 'the technical epoch towards the new classical unity'. Nobody who visits such cities as modern Stockholm can fail to be struck by the revival, in our own world, of the Greek conception of a dignified public life, symbolized by the way in which every kind of artist is utilized, not to glorify the possessions of individuals or families, but to enhance the pride and pleasure with which every citizen may regard what for him is not just a municipality but a spiritual home. It has been said of the Athenians that they kept their bodies in hovels and their souls on the Acropolis: an instructive exaggeration, reminding us that great ages of intellectual and aesthetic creation have always paid more attention to public works than to private aggrandisement. The sense of citizenship to which we aspire in this age, expressing itself in public works of unexampled scale and variety, calls for renewed study of the classical models. If the art of the Greeks and Romans was important for men of the Renaissance, or for the architects who built the city of Bath, it is even more applicable to-day, to the minds of boys and girls who live in modern Europe, at a time when the externals of civilization are being transfigured wholesale before their eyes.

Classical Education must include Art as well as Literature

I have dwelt on these visual aspects of classical education, partly because they have too often been neglected in our view of the subject, and partly because I believe that through the visual arts we can give some share of the classical inspiration to many who by circumstances are debarred from learning Greek or Latin. No sixth form classical course can in these days be considered adequate unless it presents the Greek genius as a biological whole—not only as offering a body of literature and thought, but as something which declares itself, even more directly and forcibly, to the eye.

Classical Thought and Political Problems

The history and philosophy, drama and poetry, in which the Greeks and Romans have left to us their broad conception of man's place in the state, are unrivalled in their power of stimulating us to think imperially, nationally, and municipally. The works which are read by any student who spends six years of his life in the classical forms of a good school have the supreme advantage—hardly to be overestimated in these times of perpetual change and confused issues—of simplicity. They offer a naturally simplified bird's-eye view of political and historical truths, seen once for all in concrete demonstration. For European mankind, the study of the ancient classics amounts to political self-knowledge. It has always been maintained that a classical training is the right thing for rulers and administrators, who need to understand mass movements—but in an age of free institutions we require some such understanding of every competent citizen. The quantitative smallness of the Greek city-state enables us to see the working-out of eternally recurrent political problems with a clearness that would be impossible if we had nothing before us but the perplexing hugeness and diversity of modern nations. And it is not only the facts that are so suggestive in classical writings. There is also the wisdom of the writers themselves, who lived in a more serene intellectual

air, before men's powers of reflection had been clouded by the habit of mistaking jargon for thought. In these days it is very hard to find any writer who goes back, with child-like directness and lucidity, to the plain fundamentals of a political or economic question. Contrast Plato's *Republic* with any later attempt to envisage an ideal state, and you are immediately struck by the ruthlessly simple way in which Plato, for all his Greek subtlety, pierces down to the roots of his subject. From Roman history and poetry the student gains an insight into the main issues of civil government, and the romantic as well as the material motives by which a ruling race is actuated. From the Greek thinkers he learns to be suspicious of political catchwords, to distrust what Bacon called the fallacies of the hustings, which obscure truth by party passion or prejudice. Above all, no boy or girl who intelligently studies the classics can fail to realize that once, at any rate, citizenship was invested with a high dignity and responsibility.

The Stimulating Breadth of the Antique Ideal

Since Elizabethan times, public life in this country has always suffered more or less from individualism in our politics and parochialism in our morals. To these evils the classics, which before all other virtues set forth the comprehensive virtue of 'magnanimity', have fortunately supplied some antidote. The spirit of the Renaissance, declared so magnificently in the broad humanism of Shakespeare, came mainly from a new and vital contact with antiquity. Through the periods of social cleavage and ferment that have now culminated in our own vast political problems, the leaven of classical education has often been effective in suggesting counsels of breadth and sanity to men who have had to guide and advise their fellow-countrymen. It is often supposed that a larger collectivism in politics—which in one way or another seems now to be the trend of every prevalent theory, democratic and oligarchic alike—must end in the production of human types, as distinct from persons. No one can say

that this was a fault of the ancient politics, reflected in classical history. The golden age of Athens displayed outstanding and diverse personalities, while Plutarch's *Lives* have always been regarded as impressive and distinctive portraits. There was nothing contradictory, in the classical world or in the classical ideal, between the identification of men with their state, and the fullest development of individual genius and character. Here again we see the value, for purposes of instruction, of the classical records. The advance of knowledge, and the specialization that goes on in every field of research and industry, are now unhappily prompting young people to live in blinkers, concentrating on one pursuit to the neglect both of general culture and of wider public concerns. To be acquainted with the classics is to be aware of a time when man aspired to, and often realized, a full life. No race since the Greeks has so successfully conceived of life as a complete development of personality, in which the physical and the intellectual and the social elements are reconciled with everyday efficiency in a vocation. Some glimpse of this ideal is necessary for any child who is to pull his weight as a citizen in the changing world of to-day. The Greek city-state stands alone in its conception of intellectual culture as a common and public heritage. To that conception we are slowly returning, and the classically-educated young person is equipped in some measure beforehand to understand this growing movement towards a unity of intelligence and public spirit.

Classical Culture and the General Public

It may be thought by some readers that my argument has assumed too much in the way of what can be done at school, for mere children. It is often urged against classics in school teaching that for most pupils they do not go very far, and leave the boy or girl with no more than a fragment of learning. Exactly the same thing might be said with equal reason against science or any other branch of our curriculum. As things are, it is unavoidable that masses of pupils in our secondary schools, if they approach the history and literature

of the ancient world at all, can only do so incidentally and indirectly. This fact, surely, should strengthen the case for classically-educated teachers, in English literature and in history of any kind or period. Not many people, in the great days of the Renaissance, could be credited with Greek or Latin scholarship. Our Shakespeare himself was not esteemed a scholar. But the influence of antique learning and art, powerfully affecting the few and diffused through a multitude of popular channels, was potent in widening the minds of the many, in public affairs no less than in cultural interests.

Conclusion · the Liberalizing Function of the Classics in the Present World

The teacher who deals with children from working-class homes can testify that the more thoughtful parents have already made up their minds on one point. They do not want their children relegated to a purely utilitarian instruction. Accomplishment in classical studies is obviously outside the capacity of an average child, but it always has been. What matters is the atmosphere in which the child is brought up. Citizens, in the full modern sense of that word, can only be evolved in an atmosphere of liberal ideas. I am far from saying that these are impossible without a formal classical training. They are attainable by any really intelligent person who uses the enormous resources now offered in the way of self-education by all enlightened municipalities. But no educational authority will ignore the classics, if it has an eye to what tells, in the long run, as a stimulus to the wise use of leisure and the growth of a public sense in the after life of the school child. Many people to-day, in relation both to their own intellectual life and to matters of national and international importance, confess that what they seem to lack is a basis, a ground of principle from which to start. Some of us believe that the humanizing function of the classics, directly taught or indirectly making their spirit felt, will be yet more widely recognized in school education. No party or faction can claim them as an instrument of propaganda. Alike in

prose and in poetry, to say nothing of the immediate lessons conveyed by visual classical art, they state for all time the basic truths about man in his higher development as a 'political animal'. The reactionary, if he likes, can delve in the classics for solemn warnings against change and revolution. The idealist, no less, can find in them an encouragement to new paths of social progress.

II CLASSICS IN THE SCHOOLS

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Classics below the Sixth Form

THE aim of the four years' course, which is to be found in many secondary schools and takes four or five periods a week for four years, is not to turn out scholars who have read much of Latin literature or who will do so; it is now no longer regarded as only a foundation for sixth form work, though it is also that; at every stage of the course immediate objectives are defined and the technique of teaching is being adjusted to achieve them. If the correct and intelligent use of English is desired, then Latin is a great help. The conscious study of individual words and of words put together to express thought in the language from which English is partly derived gives a sense of control of words and their meaning which cannot be lightly assessed. The grouping together of English and Latin words, the study of derivation and essential meaning and association gives even within the limits of a short course an attitude to words as such which will do much to prevent the mind from being at the mercy of mere words.

Again, the value of learning an inflected language is not to be assessed too cheaply. That small things matter, that the work which a word performs in a sentence may be shown by its form, that the work performed by several words is so ordered and related as to make up a logical whole which is the

sentence, in which each word with its appropriate form is strictly subordinated to the intention of the whole; that a sharp line of division is drawn between what is right and wrong, that the achievement of what is right can only be attained by building up a structure which is accurate from the lowest foundations—in short, that Latin offers a discipline in logic, itself of no small moral influence, which will carry over into other activities of life—these are assets to a subject which, it is claimed, is of value in training for life in a community

But words cannot be learned in lists; for their meaning to be clear they need a context, and the context of the Latin passages provided for reading aims at presenting a subject matter which will introduce a young pupil to certain stories, situations and ideals which have become part of English speech and thought. First-hand acquaintance with these basic elements is of the greatest importance if they are to be really appropriated. Their appropriation brings home with an objectivity which the statement of the 'history' lesson fails to effect, the essential idea that as regards literature, speech, and common stock of ideas the modern world inherits from the past, and the individual man is dependent upon the experience of the individual man who went before him, as he also precedes those who will inherit from him.

Within the limits of a four years' course a 'background' can be given which will be detailed enough to have meaning; this is the experience of a growing number of teachers. The worth of a Latin 'reader' from the most elementary stages onwards is now assessed by its power to give a picture of Roman life and to evoke a curiosity which the teacher must satisfy, and more 'readers' which fulfil this purpose are being produced. Many schools, besides teaching the language, arrange a progressive course which ensures that the main features of Roman life and character, the progress of Roman institutions and the place of Rome in the history of the world become familiar to their pupils. The subject-matter of the 'reader' is supplemented by pictures, lantern-lectures, and the reading of translations from Latin literature, and the

school-libraries contain easily written and well-illustrated books which do in fact attract pupils, not necessarily those of the greatest ability. A broad outline of Roman history from the earliest times into the imperial age can be given in this way within a four years' course. Military and constitutional struggles naturally receive little stress, emphasis is laid rather upon the development of Roman character and the constructive elements in Rome's dealings with her provinces. Such an outline, boldly sketched while the language is being learnt, and the more significant for that reason, gives a valuable and true enough impression of Roman civilization as the forerunner of our own. and it is becoming more and more an integral part of the four years' course.

Classics in the Sixth Form

1 *Unseen Translation and Composition in Greek and Latin.*

Besides its obvious use in increasing his knowledge of the language, unseen translation introduces the pupil to works outside his set books and provides a valuable exercise in clear thinking and literary appreciation. It is often objected that too much of the classical students' time is spent on composition and that scholars are apt to regard the writing of Latin hexameters and Greek iambs as an end in themselves. But it should be remembered what composition means. A piece of English is turned into Greek or Latin, no nuance of the original must be lost; there must be nothing in the result which a Greek or Roman could not have said in that form. It is not word-for-word translation but a recasting of the thought behind the English words into a correct ancient form. This is a training in clear thinking, and can be of great use in any situation where it is necessary to penetrate through unfamiliar words and forms to the ideas behind.

2. *Ancient History.*

(a) *General Considerations* Besides a general outline of Greek and Roman history the classical student usually studies special periods with the original sources. Two such periods

are the Greek city-state in the fifth century B.C. and the Principate of Augustus. Both are periods of great importance for the modern student, the one embraces the early domination of the Athenian democracy by the Areopagus, the period of Pericles' ascendancy, and the rule of the demagogues after Pericles' death; the other the collapse of the senatorial government of Cicero and his colleagues, and of the tyrannical rule of Caesar, and then the skilful compromise between democracy and tyranny effected by Augustus. But beyond the importance of the political ideas exemplified in these periods the use of original sources is a valuable training in method. The true student of ancient history possesses no ancient history book but makes his own. For Greek history, at least, he has all the sources that the professional scholar uses, and he learns to weigh Herodotus against Thucydides and Suetonius against Tacitus, just as later he will weigh the *Daily Herald* against the *Morning Post*, and the *Manchester Guardian* against *The Times*.

(b) *Roman History*. We may sketch very briefly some of the ideas to which the study of Roman history—to take only one part of his work—will introduce a pupil. He will learn of the growth of the city-state from an association of families; he will trace its expansion and the new problems confronting it as it takes to itself allies and dependencies and enters into the sphere of civilizations older than itself; he will see the strength of the simple virtues enduring, in spite of increasing complexity of environment, and will gauge the value of family pride at its best and its worst. He must deal with agrarian and economic questions, the revolutionary spirit and its opponents, the treatment of subject peoples, the economic failure of slavery, the problems of the central government and the war-lords, autocracy and the re-emergence of a national spirit, and the attempts by social legislation and imperial influence to foster a national self-consciousness. If he is to assess aright the unique contribution which Rome made to later political and social development he will see (i) something of the meaning of citizenship in the Greek state, internationally a failure, (ii) something of the Hellenistic

monarchies, outwardly a success but offering to the individual no citizenship worth the name, and finally (iii) the momentous fusion of the two loyalties, to city and to state, which Rome achieved, whereby a native of a western province could take pride at once in his Roman citizenship and his citizenship of the miniature Rome, his native 'town', in Gaul or Spain. And so the municipal system will claim attention—charters and by-laws, civic pride and municipal rivalry, unbalanced budgets and supervision by state-commissioners, bequests and endowments, generosity by rich and poor, the pursuit of pleasure and the buying of suffrages, empty dignities and the desire for practical service which created and found its satisfaction in the rich and varied life of the municipalities in the early Roman Empire. Yet no people in history ever talked so little about aims and mission, or privilege and right, Rome secured the loyalty of her citizens in Roumania or Africa not by theoretic teaching or self-conscious education, but by offering advantages of citizenship which were worth while, though not easy to define, and by calling forth those practical examples of service which made up an ideal worth the pursuit.

3. *Literature.*

The most important group of studies is Greek and Latin literature. We need not say anything here about the merits of the various authors, the pupils read works which are representative of the various tendencies in the two literatures. We want to consider the method of interpreting set books in general, and in particular the method of teaching a particular group of Greek authors. The pupil possesses the text of his set books and has access to several commentaries, among them the lectures of his teacher. The first question is what the author wrote. Manuscript readings have to be assessed and the best chosen and justified. The second question is why the author wrote it. The sound and quality of the words must be appreciated, the suitability of each phrase to its place in a work of this particular literary form must be demonstrated. Thirdly, the text is an expression of the author's

thought and must be related to the rest of his thought, fourthly, it must be related to the rest of Greek or Roman thought. Only when all these things have been done can the text be said to have been interpreted, for only then has the full force of the author's meaning been appreciated. Such a process is a training in scientific method which should encourage a desire to ascertain the facts behind the appearances

The Greek orators, who form the group of Greek authors to be considered here, lived in the fifth and fourth century B C. The pupil is given a selection of speeches of various types and various periods. Some were written for the law-court, some for the assembly, some are political pamphlets. In two cases at least the speeches of prosecution and defence in a lawsuit are preserved. There is an admirable opportunity for comparing the techniques of different types of speakers in different types of speech. One speaker adapts his speech to the character of client and jury, another does not. One speaker reserves his emotional effects for his peroration, another plays on the emotions of his audience all through the speech, one speaker keeps his narrative and arguments in water-tight compartments, another argues each point of his narrative as he relates it, one man uses one type of argument, another another. These are the points which the pupil seeks in the Greek orators and which he learns to appreciate and recognize in them, and these are points of practical application to the speeches and journalism of to-day, for the good citizen of democracy must be able to distinguish between words and facts

SUMMARY

The chief concern of this article has been to show that the methods of studying the Classics are methods which should teach the power of clear thinking and the love of truth, which are desired in the good citizens of a democracy. This is a claim which can be made for other studies as well, which must be made for every study if it is to be included in the

curriculum Classics has its place among the rest because the works of Greek and Roman literature and art are among the supreme manifestations of the human spirit, because they are, to borrow the words of Plato, 'a healthy place where the young can dwell and be benefited by every influence of sight and sound from beautiful works, like a breeze bringing health from good places and leading them from childhood without their knowing it into likeness and love and harmony with fair reason'

CHAPTER 11

MODERN LANGUAGES

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UNDER the educational system at present prevailing in secondary schools, modern languages occupy an important place. They are allotted a good share of the time-table. Their claim to the proud title of 'modern humanities', i.e. as an intellectual and cultural discipline, has been asserted and upheld. There remains the question 'What contribution can the study of modern languages make to education in citizenship?'

Some Necessary Qualities of the Citizen of Democracy

The primary condition for good citizenship is a deep and lively consciousness of the community of man, in groups small and large, from the unit of the family to the comity of the nations. On this broad basis is founded the urge towards a truly social attitude. But if there is to be progress from a passive attitude to social action, we need intellectual training. To quote from the initial chapter of this book 'The citizen of democracy must also be a man of independent judgement; he must respect the individualities of others and therefore be tolerant of opinions in conflict with his own . . . must know something both of the world to-day and of the history of its development . . . should recognize his responsibilities not only as a citizen of his own country but also as a citizen of the world.'

The Contribution of Modern Language Study

Independence of judgement implies sifting evidence, and evidence, outside the laboratory, is usually given in words. The naive and unquestioning attitude to words is one of the greatest obstacles to such objective sifting. The familiar ring of words in the mother-tongue makes it easy to believe that

one can penetrate effortlessly to the full meaning of a text. Even in the simplest passage in a foreign language it becomes clear to the child that meaning lies *behind* and *under* the French or German words in which it may be clothed, the essential skeleton under the varying hues of life, and that that meaning *must be sought*. How must it be sought? We can translate the passage into English, with the help of a dictionary. But the dictionary is a help only if intelligently used. The real process of gaining understanding lies in treating the passage as a whole, in working from the premise 'This writer is trying to convey something from his particular point of view, and that something is intelligible if I can get beyond the words as separate particles, and rebuild the original unity'. It is experience of this precise and serious approach to language that is needed.

The child learns perforce to respect the individualities of others through personal contacts in the family and in school. He is not yet at a stage to grapple with political and social opinions and their divergences, in the abstract. But studying a modern language, or, better still, two, puts before him at an early age group-differences which he can grasp, those facts of social life which correspond to and yet differ from his own experience. He discovers that another mode of living and thinking is traditional, widespread, and justified by success, and, if he is guided by a good teacher, almost unconsciously a habit of respect for the individualities of others, and of tolerance for their opinions is built up. At the same time, another contribution to training in independence of judgement is made, for he is provided with a valuable term of comparison for viewing the life and manners of his own country. What has been accepted unquestioningly as the inevitable form of living is disclosed as only one among many possibilities, moulded by national character and the march of events.

In his history lessons the child learns the great unfolding of the past. The comparison lies between past and present. In his modern language lessons he should feel the parallels between his own country and the other, both in the same age,

exposed to the impact of the same events, but reacting differently because of a different past, a different orientation. His knowledge of the world of to-day is deepened and differentiated. The abstraction France or Germany is vitalized, becomes colourful and complex, an organic conception. It is quite easy to think one 'hates' a cartoon figure, purporting to symbolize a nation, which gives a convenient ideograph for a vague nexus of emotionally-charged associations. It is difficult to 'hate' Jean and Marie Dupont, Hans and Gretchen Schmidt, when one is fully aware that they are just like ourselves.

No child should ever begin learning a foreign language without at least some inkling of its development and its place in the family of languages. Vividly presented, this can be an unforgettable experience, humanism at its most graphic. There the child sees man's urge to communication and expression finding its outlet in many forms, but always concerned primarily with the common stock of experience, developing in more and more delicate reflections of meaning, until we come to the lovely 'untranslatable' words, which embody the most profoundly individual aspects of national character and experience. The borrowing from one language to another, the commerce of language, reflecting as it does a real exchange of mental and emotional experience, can make the child feel, more clearly than any impassioned eloquence on the subject, how closely linked are the nations, and that he too is a citizen of the world, even by such an everyday fact as the heritage and use of language.

Language training is much-needed technical and intellectual training. Penetration of another culture is broadening and enriching. But apart from these self-regarding gains, there should develop from a living knowledge of the foreign nation admiration for its qualities, understanding tolerance of its defects (we forget too often that every good quality has its complementary fault), a readiness to view objectively those of its claims which clash with our own, a sense of gratitude for its contribution to European culture and civilization, and a desire to continue and increase co-operation between the

peoples; in short, a beginning of world-citizenship. History and geography teach that lesson in its broadest and most universal form. Modern language teaching can and should particularize and fill in those outlines in the case of one or two nations, and inspire in the child a sense that what is true of France or Germany would be found true of other nations, were there but time and opportunity to study them in the same detail, and that national prejudices tend to melt before knowledge.

The Attitude of the Teacher

If this end is to be attained, the attitude of the teacher must be one of sympathetic and generous appreciation of the foreign nation, based on wide understanding. He must be steeped in intimate knowledge of the foreign country, knowledge not only of its literature and its language, but of its history and social structure, and that knowledge must be drawn from personal experience and observation, as well as from books. His contacts with the country must be frequently renewed, and his knowledge kept fresh and up-to-date, for it is his duty to achieve the sympathetic introduction of the pupil into an alien world, to bridge gaps and create approaches. There must be the whole force and all the resources of a great reservoir if the small details are to be instinct with life, and the fragmentary day-to-day information is finally to build up an ordered and organic whole.

Beginning to learn a Foreign Language

Children usually come to this new activity with interest and enthusiasm, and it is essential that this interest be maintained. Even the groundwork, learning the unaccustomed sounds, should not be begun before the teacher has given a short but lively sketch of the country and the people to be studied through their language. The teacher's attitude of sincere affection for the country and its inhabitants will be felt by the class. The outstanding qualities of the foreign nation and its contribution to the commonwealth of nations

will be touched upon, and also the interplay between that nation and our own. The learning of a foreign language should be felt as something valuable in itself, as the opening of a door to a new domain, as a social activity leading to the possibility of interchange of experience and ideas with another people.

Phonetics themselves can serve not only as a practical help in language learning, but as a fine example of an international code, applicable to all languages, built up to its present perfection by the concerted action of devoted scientific workers from many lands, and bringing order into the apparent chaos of language and languages, a form of international law

The pupil should feel that the teacher has real friends in the foreign country and looks upon it as a homeland by spiritual adoption. This sense of possible kinship, this realization that the foreign people react as do the people at home, should be reinforced immediately by the provision of correspondents. Not, however, in the usual way, whereby each individual pupil is provided with the name and address of a French or German child. Children of 11 or so, the usual age for beginning a foreign language, have not yet the facility in discovering and treating topics of interest which makes such correspondence between individual strangers fruitful, and the ardent beginning soon flags. Rather let the class as a whole adopt a similar class in France or Germany, send collective accounts of activities in school or town, exchange picture postcards, illustrated papers, books, and snapshots. Let a small group of the class be responsible for the correspondence for each month. Individual correspondence may then develop or not, as circumstances dictate. But such group-work is stimulating and valuable, and more easily maintained. The children will observe their own surroundings with fresh eyes, while they try to pick out the items likely to be of interest abroad. In the early stages, linguistic considerations may be temporarily shelved. The English children may well write in English, using their developing French or German for beginning and ending their letter, and progressing

gradually to more ambitious flights of language. The contact with the living reality is the essential thing.

Material Conditions

It is a great asset if the modern language teacher can have his own room, and in it create the atmosphere of a little corner of the foreign country. There should be good maps and good pictures (railway and travel posters serve admirably, and as they are inexpensive they can be frequently changed) and a foreign calendar, preferably illustrated. Notices relating to the class can be put up in French or German. There should be a small collection of such objects as coins, tram, and railway tickets, stamps, &c —trivial things in themselves, but they catch the interest of 11-year olds by being concrete and different. The manner of noting those differences should be observed and guided. The teacher should set his face, resolutely but without crushing spontaneity of comment, against any assumption of the superior 'How funny!' attitude. Practice in the use of dates seems more than a mere exercise, if it is done in connexion with a foreign calendar, so does practice in the use of times and numbers with a foreign time-table (railway, airway, and motor-bus, if possible) and all the while the living reality of a great modern country, with its organization parallel to that of our own, is being brought home to the children. The elementary mechanical aids will be modified progressively. The interest aroused in the classroom may be furthered by giving notice of interesting foreign broadcasts, which may be listened to at home, by giving an occasional short lecture-lesson on some actual problem of the country studied, and by encouraging the children to read their own newspapers with an eye to further information on the subject. All suitable foreign films should be recommended in advance and group-visits arranged whenever possible.

A large scrap-book will be found useful. In it should be pasted pictures of every kind of scene and object, with the particular details written in French or German in the margin. Advertisements and illustrated papers provide ample material,

and the children themselves can contribute. The scrap-book should be available, even when not actually in use for conversation or descriptive narrative. A great deal can be learnt from it, of the language and of the country. Another scrap-book should be filled with the matter sent by the adopted foreign class.

It is desirable, even if there is not a special room for modern languages, that the room used should be completely separate from other classrooms. There should not be constraint on chorus-work, on moving about in answer to commands in the foreign tongue, on singing or dramatization, or on the use of the gramophone or wireless.

The gramophone is used mainly to train the ear in correct intonation and accent, and to encourage imitation. But its usefulness does not end there. It can be used to give vivid impressions of a foreign personality and of the art of France and Germany. (In this connexion it may be mentioned that His Master's Voice Gramophone Company has produced a practical booklet on the use of the gramophone in schools.) It is through the eyes and the presentation of the teacher that the foreign nation becomes known to the class. That is good and right in the case of the thinking, liberal, and well-informed teacher, but it is not enough. The gramophone and broadcasting can supplement and heighten, by giving variety of approach and what amounts to direct contact.

Text-books and Syllabuses

It would be invidious to mention particular text-books. Every teacher must find what meets his own needs. But it can be said that all text-books should be characterized by vitality and simplicity of language, and should give an attractive and undistorted picture.

The first year is little concerned with reading. The work is mainly oral, and the vocabulary for common objects and ordinary activities is gradually acquired. Then follow anecdotes of home life, everyday incidents, characteristic poems and songs, national legends and folk-lore.

A great change takes place in the pupils half-way through the course which leads to School Certificate. The pupils of 11 and 12 are fairly passive and uncritical in their attitude to the matter presented. This is the time to offer the maximum of human interest, for the play of memory and emotion, for action and dramatization. From 13 onwards there is a new critical interest in the world, an active sense of adventure and a thirst for fresh experience. The wide third-year reading can meet these needs, for the rudiments of the language and the basic vocabulary have been mastered. Texts should be enjoyed and read rapidly whenever possible. Some translation may be needed from time to time to ensure understanding, and this is best done by the teacher. Some history and geography of the foreign country finds its place here, and simple excerpts from foreign newspapers may be used. It is stimulating to present accounts of events to which there is already an established British attitude, but from the point of view of the other side.

The fourth year, which ends with School Certificate, is a year in which language is attacked afresh as a problem, where forms of expression are seriously and precisely considered, where master and class wrestle together with shades of meaning and the difficult art of translation must be faced. This is the year of solid constructive linguistic training.

All through the course pupils should be encouraged to use the school library, in which there should figure a supply of well-chosen works dealing freshly with the country studied. Unaided reading in the foreign tongue cannot be expected early. This is rather for the Higher School Certificate forms. But the great poets can be drawn upon early, and introduced in such a way that their work does not seem to exist in a vacuum.

Desirable Changes and Developments

Some of the present Higher School Certificate syllabuses show an absolute predominance of imaginative literature, either of the Classical or the Romantic period. It is as though France or Germany ceased to exist after 1850, although some

changes in the syllabus are to be noted and welcomed. Pure literature and literary history are, after all, only a restricted reflection of social history. This specialization is the more to be regretted as boys and girls at this stage might profitably undertake a more penetrating and detailed study of the foreign country, its life and institutions as well as its literature. It is doubtful too, whether major works of pure literature, clothed in the classical or romantic literary convention and a foreign tongue, are truly accessible to the range of experience, linguistic and emotional, of the young people who study them between the ages of 16 and 18. But teachers who are dissatisfied with the existing examination syllabuses should remember that they are free to make suggestions and even provide their own syllabuses, subject to the approval of the examining body, and that very little use is made of this possible liberty. It is at this stage in the school course that the pupil begins to be aware of the coherence between the various branches of knowledge, and yet it is at this stage that narrow specialization begins. One can imagine a modern language Higher School Certificate syllabus which would require knowledge of the foreign country as a historical and social entity, and of the ebb and flow of European currents of thought between Britain, France, and Germany, a course which would provide intellectual training in world-citizenship.

There are other fields too, which modern language teachers who would like to strengthen that aspect of their work which is concerned with social values might well explore and develop. The linguistic courses provided by the B.B.C. are doubtless of great value to the private student, but to the group working under an able teacher they give nothing more than can already be had in the classroom with greater adaptability to individual needs. The B.B.C. could, however, provide the modern language class with dramatic scenes from foreign countries, vitalized with appropriate sound effects, such as have been given in the historical reconstructions. This would be of incalculable value. In the same way, the gramophone companies might provide, in addition to their

records of songs and fine literary passages in the foreign language, dramatic scenes of daily life

What is needed is the mustering of all the resources, mechanical or otherwise, which can make of the intellectual activity of learning a foreign language a direct, graphic, and vitalized contribution to world-citizenship and international understanding.

CHAPTER 12

MATHEMATICS

By SIR PERCY NUNN, M A., D SC, HON LIT D, HON LL D.

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The Arithmetic of Citizenship

A GERMAN writer has declared that the level of a country's civilization may be measured by the degree in which it brings arithmetic to bear upon its national affairs. At first sight this view may be a little startling, but upon reflection one sees that something like it is incorporated in the substance of the British Constitution. For is not the First Minister of the Crown almost invariably also the First Lord of the Treasury, and do we not lodge the Chancellor of the Exchequer next door to his official residence? And do we not regard balancing the national budget, even in the hardest of times, as the first of our national duties, and perhaps the solidest, if not the highest, of our national triumphs? It would be easy to develop and illustrate the argument by reference to the vast development of 'social services' during the last five-and-twenty years. Most of us understand, if only dimly, that the possibility of this great movement depends not upon goodwill only and the existence of taxable wealth, but also upon the application of mathematical principles, and that if the principles are not sound or are not soundly applied, the goodwill and the wealth may alike be wasted. The scepticism which in some quarters greeted a statesman's famous announcement that one of his measures would give the public '9d for 4d.' was a criticism based upon a crude apprehension of this important doctrine.

The writer has long held that the teaching of mathematics in schools should, among other things, aim at illustrating the bearing of arithmetic upon public affairs—using arithmetic in a somewhat wide sense which does not exclude a good deal of what is usually called higher mathematics. In short, he has

felt that mathematics, equally with other subjects of the school curriculum, has its own contribution to make to social studies, and that without that contribution the equipment of the secondary school pupil for his duties as citizen must, in an important respect, be incomplete. One might perhaps go farther and maintain that there is a good deal to be said for approaching from the financial side the study of many important features of social life. The method ensures a solid foundation and firm fibre for studies which sometimes tend to be vaporous, and it trains the future citizen to consider public policy from the quantitative as well as the qualitative point of view.

Considerations of this kind led the writer twenty-five years ago to formulate a syllabus in which a number of items commonly taught in schools were brought together and presented as an attempt to understand how municipal and national activities are regulated on the financial side, and also to elucidate certain social institutions of widespread importance, such as insurance. The title of the syllabus, 'The Arithmetic of Citizenship', indicates the spirit in which the enterprise was undertaken.¹

Rates and Taxes

In the first stage of the programme the teacher collects from the class—boys and girls aged round about 13—examples of public services, and inquires how they are provided. The upkeep of the streets, drainage, lighting, the police, buses and trams, schools elementary and secondary, the fire brigade, libraries, water, gas, electric light and power are all obvious instances. Assistance of the unemployed and what is now

¹ The syllabus was published (1912) in a volume entitled *Syllabuses used in the Demonstrations Schools of the London Day Training College*, and a good many years later was republished as a supplement to *The Forum of Education*. Both issues are now out of print. The syllabus 'enlarged and revised' by Mr B L Ginson of Bedales School is published in a report of the Mathematical Association on *Elementary Mathematics in Girls' Schools* (Bell & Sons, 1929).

A text-book entitled *The Arithmetic of Citizenship* written by Mr J. Riley, B Sc, one of the present writer's former students, is still in circulation (Sidgwick & Jackson), and others have been published since.

called public assistance are services not so plain to the eye, but likely to be mentioned by more intelligent pupils. The question 'Who administers these services?' reveals a mixture of knowledge, of ignorance, and uncertainty. In a London school, for instance, every one will know that the schools are maintained by the County Council, but the pupils are generally ignorant about the responsibilities of the boroughs and doubtful (as they well may be) about the status of the London Passenger Transport Board. At a suitable moment the teacher produces a document which throws a flood of light upon all these questions: it is the note demanding from a ratepayer the payment of the half-yearly rates due upon the property he occupies. It is easy to see what interesting matters arise when this document is studied—beginning with the distinction between taxes and rates, *i.e.* the distinction between municipal and national finance, and the basis upon which the provision of municipal finance rests. The up-to-date demand note always contains a statement of the way in which the money collected in rates is to be expended. This is expressed in the form that so much in the pound is to be devoted to elementary education, so much to lighting and cleaning of streets, so much to public assistance, &c. It is also made clear that although the borough collects the whole of the rate, the spending of it does not lie entirely in its hands. The borough, we learn, pays directly only for certain specified services, and passes a large proportion of the rate on to the county council. Possibly the main details of the expenditure by the county council will also be recorded, so that ratepayers may see where their money goes. A study of the document also reveals that neither the borough nor the county council is left to bear unaided the whole burden of local services; there is a reference, vague but interesting, to subsidies from the national authorities, *i.e.* from taxes. In that way the partnership between central and local authorities which is so characteristic a feature of English government is revealed.

The foregoing sketch will perhaps indicate sufficiently the line followed by the discussion, which so far is general and aims at being informative. Arithmetic comes in when the

facts ascertained are submitted to closer analysis. Assuming, for example, that the annual rate is 12s 6d in the £, the pupils may draw a rectangle of suitable breadth $12\frac{1}{2}$ units long, and divide it into sections representing the more important items of expenditure, the residue being lumped together into two groups belonging respectively to borough and county council expenditure. Methods of colouring and shading may be used to make the distinctions more impressive, and with a stimulating teacher and an eager class the results may be quite nice to look at. What is more important is that they bring out in a very clear way the ratio between the amounts expended upon different services. Comparisons of this kind are still more instructive if pupils can obtain demand notes from different areas and work upon the strongly contrasted data they sometimes supply. Calculations of varied kinds usually follow: one can convert the items of expenditure into percentages, and can determine how much a man occupying a house rated at £76 contributes to elementary education, to public assistance, to the public library, &c. In a word there is no lack of opportunities for the problems and numerical drill which the conscientious teacher of mathematics will demand, and when supplied by this method they have the advantage that they deepen and stabilize the pupils' understanding of matters of important public concern.

At suitable intervals after the introduction, attention may be turned to county council finance and, preferably when the Chancellor of the Exchequer brings out his budget, to the details of the national estimates of revenue and expenditure. The latter subject, though in method it repeats in the main what has been done before, should be taken at a later age, since the questions to which it almost invariably gives rise are questions for the boy or girl who is beginning to be aware of matters of social justice and the great issues of national policy which are involved in the Chancellor of the Exchequer's proposals. A teacher, if he is wise, will avoid as far as possible a contentious treatment of these issues, but it is all to the good that they should come before the class with the force and liveliness which the figures of the budget impart to them.

Private and Public Loans

Another range of problems opens up when one approaches the problem of public loans and their repayment. This question is, however, probably best approached through problems which have a more direct concern for a great many private citizens. A very striking social phenomenon in our days is the increase in the number of houses bought instead of being merely rented by their occupiers. In this connexion hundreds of thousands of citizens have made practical contact with the problem of paying for a house largely by means of a loan from a building society. In our class, now aged perhaps 15, a prospectus of a building society is examined; one learns what a mortgage is, and the several ways in which a mortgage may be redeemed, and above all one learns the important distinction between repayments of capital and the payment of interest upon capital outstanding. Among methods of repayment the simplest is that in which one pays interest steadily upon the original loan until the day of joy or doom arrives when the whole sum borrowed is repaid. Much more usual and important is the standard method of the building society according to which one pays off the sum borrowed by instalments, and at the same time pays interest upon the capital outstanding. In some cases the pupil who understands simple interest can work out quite easily the detailed table of repayments: for instance, a building society may, at the beginning of each year, merely add 5 per cent. to the outstanding capital, and expect the borrower to reduce the total by a covenanted amount during the ensuing twelve months. The problem of determining the state of the account at the end of any given year is here a problem of very simple arithmetic. The method of repayment by an annuity, which is followed perhaps by most building societies, brings in more complicated mathematics, but, by teachers who know how to handle it, can be made easy as well as attractive even for quite elementary mathematicians. Graphic representations have an indispensable place in work of this kind.

Having made clear the method by which the private loan may be repaid, one turns to public loans, and here one enters upon a very important field of information and study. It is, however, one which is familiar, and little need be said about it. The only thing one would stress is the importance of making one's treatment actual by reference to the terms upon which public loans, either by governments or local authorities, are invited and repaid.

Types and Methods of Insurance

From the kind of annuity by which a loan is repaid in a given number of years to a life annuity payable from a certain age until the beneficiary's death, is a not unnatural transition. The only difference, though it is assuredly an important one, is that in the second kind one does not know, when the annuity is bought, for how many years the recipient is to enjoy it. But although that is true of a particular recipient, it is not true of a large number of recipients of the same age considered as a body. For instance, reference to the table of Expectation of Life in *Whitaker's Almanack*¹ shows that, on the average, men aged forty-four have twenty-six more years to live. If a man of forty-four buys an annuity from an insurance society, which by hypothesis grants annuities to a very large number of people of the same age, the cost is governed mainly by the assumption that the annuity must be paid for twenty-six years. This conclusion, converted into concrete terms by means of other tables in the *Almanack*, carries the investigation sufficiently far for the ordinary pupil. The better mathematicians may be encouraged to look at the question more carefully, taking account of the number of persons who die in successive years, and consequentially of the number in each year who would be alive to draw the annuity, until somewhere about the age of 110 the last of them falls off.

Some teachers, giving less weight to the claims of continuity, may prefer to use the Life Table in the first instance

¹ 'Whitaker' is quite indispensable for a great deal of the arithmetic of citizenship

to explain the method of calculating not life annuities, but the single payments which constitute the 'benefit' attached to a life insurance policy. One may suppose that 100,000 parents, excited by the birth of the first baby boy, determine here and now to covenant with an insurance society to pay the heir upon his majority, let us say, £100. What is the single premium needed to secure that benefit? Evidently it depends partly upon the fact that money in the hands of the insurance society would increase at compound interest, and partly upon the sad truth that of the 100,000 little boys now born, only 83,456 will be alive to receive the gift on their twenty-first birthday. The essence of the calculation is, therefore, to find the present value at a standard rate of interest of £8,345,600 due twenty-one years from now and to divide it among the 100,000 eager parents. Generally speaking, of course, an 'Endowment Insurance' of this kind is not secured by a single premium, but by a premium paid annually. That complicates the calculation woefully though it brings in no new principle. One has to find out from the table how many children survive at the end of the first, second, third years, &c., in order to know how many premiums for each year the society will receive, and must calculate how much these premiums will amount to at the end of the term.

The study of insurance has brought us into a province of huge importance where one meets with pensions of teachers, civil servants, and other employees, old age pensions, insurance against fire, accident, including motor accidents, burglary, unemployment, and the like. Some of these may be treated directly as illustrations of the principles stated in connexion with life insurance and life annuities, and in all cases those principles are necessary in order that the social institution may be understood. For instance, it is important that in every case our pupils shall understand what is meant by saying that a particular scheme is actuarially sound or unsound. A topical illustration of the point is the insolvency of certain motor insurance companies, due to their having based their policy upon imperfect statistics of motor accidents and claims.

The Statistical Sense

With the Life Table we have entered into the region of statistics. From the purely mathematical point of view this is a region of great interest, sadly neglected or mishandled in most secondary schools, while from our special point of view it has prime importance. To one who has even a very modest knowledge of modern statistics, the entire absence of the statistical sense in the general run of his fellow-citizens strikes him as a peculiar kind of blindness. If one is to see social phenomena clearly and in proper proportions one must have that statistical sense, and there is not the slightest reason why the secondary school curriculum in mathematics, properly planned and properly taught, should not communicate it. As in the arithmetic of citizenship, a good deal could be done simply by giving a new turn to very familiar material. The study of permutations and combinations, which often strikes the ordinary pupil as devoted to trivialities, can be given a different and much more interesting and desirable complexion if treated as a study of probabilities—for is not probability the guide of life?—and the study of probabilities, at any rate in school, should be simply a study of statistics. For instance, to say that the probability that a baby boy born to-day will reach the age of 21 is 0.83, is simply another way of saying that the statistics of mortality show that, out of 100 male beginners in life, 83 reach their majority.

One begins with a simple study of frequency distributions. An instance readily understood, though not one of the first to be examined, would be the frequency of distribution of height among grown men or women or boys or girls of a certain age. One finds that there are so many people whose height is 48 inches, but less than 49 inches, so many whose height is 49 but less than 50 inches, and so on, the numbers in each of these divisions being called the 'frequency' of that particular height. Almost every one nowadays knows that when a curve is drawn to represent these facts it has a characteristic shape known as the 'normal' curve. Normal frequency distribution, which is characteristic of so many vital phenomena of all

kinds, is one of those things which every citizen should understand. It is much more important than the quadratic equations or the binomial theorem on which so much time is cheerfully expended.

Every one should carry away from his secondary school a sound knowledge of the different meanings of the word 'average', and above all of the way in which a distribution is characterized not only by the average of the magnitudes included in it, but also by the way the greater and lesser magnitudes are arranged above and below the average. For instance, it is of little value to know what is the mean income of a given population unless one also has an idea of the way in which the incomes of all magnitudes are spread above and below that average. In technical language our pupils should learn how the message of a mass of statistics can be succinctly expressed by stating the mean value of the individual magnitudes and their 'standard deviation'. Any one who has so much as dabbled in these interesting matters will know that they give opportunities for simple mathematics involving no more than the operations which every secondary school pupil learns, but giving to those operations a degree of significance which the ordinary school algebra rarely conveys.

Mathematical Correlation

Lastly, there is the important and most attractive field of correlation, which is the mathematical study of the way in which magnitudes of different measurable things are connected with one another. Is there, for instance, any connexion between ability to add up figures and ability to decide which of two musical notes is the higher in pitch, if so, what is the measure of the connexion? Here is a problem which started Professor C. Spearman upon investigations which have thrown a flood of light upon the mysteries of human ability. One could hardly expect secondary school pupils to follow him in these inquiries, but the method of correlation which he uses is an indispensable instrument in investigating the relations between vital and social phenomena, and as such

might very well be made the subject of an elementary study in secondary schools.

Banking and Currency

Somewhere in the scheme of work, room should be found for one other important topic, namely, banking and currency. It is obvious that in the mathematics course these subjects can be treated only lightly. Nevertheless it is very desirable that all secondary school pupils should know something about them. They should understand that the ordinary bank, i.e. one of the 'Big Five', exercises three functions, all of great importance to the community: it keeps our money safely for us, by the cheque system it simplifies immensely the practical problem of making payments, and by granting 'credit' it plays an indispensable part in fostering industrial and commercial enterprise. The functions of a central bank, of which the Bank of England is the natural exemplar, differ from these, and the pupils should learn something of the decisive part central banks play in national and international finance. The difficult question of currency can be glanced at in connexion with the study of the central banks and their functions.

Somewhere also attention will be given to the ordinary machinery by which industries obtain the capital they need for maintenance and expansion. This part of the subject may not inconveniently be treated as an addendum to the section dealing with loans issued by central and local authorities since to a large extent the purposes are the same.

CHAPTER 13

SCIENCE, WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO BIOLOGY

By DORIS L. MACKINNON, D SC.

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Scientific Method and Clear Thinking

THE place of science in the school curriculum has long ago been won. Its educative value to the individual is not now disputed: the imagination is stimulated and the mental life enriched. Moreover, since the method of science is eminently rational, not only is the mind trained to more exact power of observation, but some sense of the value of factual evidence is developed.

There are many, of course, who dispute the individual's capacity to approach problems outside his own science with the caution and the habit of dispassionate analysis that he may have acquired within the special province of his training. Sceptics do not allow us to forget that, during the Great War, men of science in the belligerent countries were as liable as any layman to emotional sway: not without reason they protest that years of training the mind to objectivity benefit the scientist little if he is among the first to be carried away by popular outcry and is found as incapable as the man in the street of interpreting sanely a newspaper report. If the experts are so vulnerable, it is objected, how can you make out any case for the value of this aspect of elementary scientific training to the masses of the people?

Admittedly good cause has been given for this scepticism. But because some men have been shown unwise even though learned, is that to be taken as proof that the acquired habit of mind is 'non-transferable'? For it might be argued that the behaviour of the scientists in question was mainly referable to imperfections in their early education. I maintain that it is a prime duty of the teacher of science to make

his pupil aware, and very early aware, that the habit of thought he is acquiring in the laboratory is something to be applied to the facts of everyday life as a whole, and not put away in the locker with microscope and overall at the end of the lesson. Just as the wise priest sees to it that the religious exaltation of his parishioners does not altogether fade with the benediction, but extends into their homes so that their whole life is coloured by it, so also I consider it a prime duty of the teacher of science to let his pupil understand from the beginning what are the responsibilities in common life which the scientific discipline lays on all those who have once submitted to it.

The Place of Biology in School Teaching

For giving this valuable mental discipline, it seems to me that any one of the sciences is as good as another. The chemist and the physicist would doubtless protest. Biology, they would say, is not an exact science, or not exact enough to rank in disciplinary value with those so much longer established in the universities and in the schools. But because biology is an innovation in the schools, I consider it especially worthy of consideration by the readers of this book. The schemes for teaching chemistry and physics in schools are based on long experience and have general acceptance. The teaching of biology is still in the experimental stage, and probably no two authorities would yet agree as to the best procedure. So there seems some chance for adapting it in certain respects to the ends of the educator for citizenship.

I hope it is clear, however, that I do not wish to see chemistry and physics crowded out of the science curriculum in order to make way for biology. If biology is ever to become a more exact science, it is to chemistry and physics that we must look for aid. Moreover, no biology worthy of the name can be taught to a child ignorant of the elements of chemistry and physics. But a place more important than has been given it should be found for biology in the educational programme of every modern school. For since, of all the sciences,

biology has the most obvious contacts with human life, its subject-matter is of vital importance in the education of the potential citizen. The fact that this subject-matter is also of great interest to the average child makes the instructor's task here all the easier.

Moreover, in the school, biology may form a valuable link between the more abstract sciences and those that we call 'social'. Dispassionate thinking is not difficult where problems of pure physics and chemistry are concerned: the trouble comes when we have to deal with problems affecting ourselves, for here our emotions and our prejudices are deeply involved. With biology these difficulties begin to make an appearance, and the child can be trained to examine its own reactions to what it learns and to be on its guard against allowing sentiment to influence a judgement on matters of fact.

Biology and Public Health

To the biologist it seems grotesque indeed that thousands of his 'educated' fellow-citizens grow up without having any but the haziest ideas concerning the structure and functions of their own bodily organs. Intelligent application of the rules of personal hygiene is possible only when elementary biological principles have been grasped, and surely the more intelligently the citizen looks after his body's health, the better for the State?

But since in this book we are concerned mainly with what is not self-regarding, I further claim that training in elementary biological principles is necessary to prepare the future citizen for intelligent appreciation of public schemes for improvement of the national health. Only a fraction of these biologically educated will become doctors or sanitary inspectors or health-visitors, that is true. But I would argue that if their school contemporaries are also taught *why* it is that no living thing, whether plant or animal, can flourish without sufficient air and light and space, then that generation as a whole should grow up with a livelier, because more enlightened, conscience where schemes for better housing and

for 'open spaces' are in question. And if a whole generation has learnt what are the essential constituents in the food of any living being, whether plant or animal, and has also learnt *why* these must be supplied if the body is to flourish, there should be better hope of getting an enthusiastic public support for measures to secure at least the minimum requirements for the nation's children.

The Interdependence of Living Things

Nor is the physical environment all that the biologist takes into account. Important also is the influence of other living beings with which we come in contact, directly or indirectly. No animal or plant lives to itself alone. each is influenced all the time by the impact on it of other lives and the needs of other creatures. There is a perpetual give and take. Man, whether considered as an individual or as a social animal, is no exception to this rule. he is saturated by his physical environment, and the lives of human beings are as interwoven with one another as are the lives of the organisms they study.

Appreciation of these facts, an understanding gained in childhood of what is meant by biological interdependence, this is surely valuable to the future citizen? In its narrower application, such knowledge should make for reasonableness where seeming interference with the individual's liberty is concerned. If he knows *why* it is inadvisable to take into a new country certain plants and animals not native to it, a man is much more likely to assist the officials whose duty it is to protect their country's crops. If he knows *what* is the connexion between mosquitoes and malaria, he may more readily conform with the regulations as to drainage of his land, and cease to be a danger to his neighbours.

In its far wider application, what he has learnt at school of biological interdependence may make him a better citizen of the world; and it should help him to work for peace among the nations. For no nation lives to itself alone, and what brings disaster upon one involves all that are associated with it. This is no mere analogy.

The Population Problem

Among the major political issues of the not-far-distant future is the population problem. Fundamentally this is a biological problem. Present-day politicians are not concerning themselves with it overmuch, but there are signs that they may soon be forced to take it very seriously indeed. To take one instance—the estimate is that by 1976 the number of children of school age will be only one-half of what it is now. Clearly, this change in the size of the population will bring with it political and social problems of all kinds: it seems worth while, therefore, to educate the future electorate in such a way that they may take some intelligent interest in the solutions that will be proposed.

Some would argue, no doubt, that the question of human population—with all that it involves—is so complex that to introduce this aspect of biology into education at school is unsuitable, if not futile. But where else, if not at school, is the bulk of the future electorate to get the preliminary knowledge fundamental to some understanding of the biological facts on which the size and quality of any population of animals ultimately depends? And without such knowledge the uninstructed layman would fall an even surer prey to prejudiced demagoguery, should the time come for him to express an opinion on an issue affecting the regulation of human numbers.

Even boys and girls leaving school at sixteen might learn before they go how animal populations fluctuate in quantity and quality. They should also learn that to have a suitable environment is not in itself enough to ensure that any plant or any animal will turn out good of its kind. The suitable environment, necessary though it be, can do no more for the organism than give it the chance to develop its innate potentialities. And these potentialities depend on what has gone into the germ—on what, that is to say, the parents have jointly contributed. The emphasis must be on the quality of the progenitors, if future generations are to be worthy of a better environment. It seems advisable, from every point

of view, that such facts should be intelligently grasped before the mind is distracted by the consideration of the special problems, social and religious, with which attempts to improve the quality of the human population are bound to be associated. If by sixteen the pupil has come to realize that, *biologically speaking*, man is one with the animals, and that the laws of heredity throughout the organic world must therefore apply to him equally with the laws of physiology, this is a great point gained.

For those who stay at school until they are eighteen, there will be time and opportunity to carry things farther, and already most school syllabuses in botany and zoology for boys and girls between sixteen and eighteen provide for instruction in the elements of genetics.

Evolution

The essential things which any child should know concerning his own body, and so, by *implication*, concerning the bodies of his fellow-men—all could be taught to him through intensive study of one type of animal. But he would lose thereby, for he would get little or no sense of continuity in the organic world. Now actually one finds that nearly all school syllabuses in biology do make some attempt to bring home this idea to the child—of unity in diversity. And whether their authors expressly state the fact or not, these syllabuses and text-books for boys and girls are obviously based on the evolutionary principle that has dominated so much of biological study since Darwin's day.

I find it difficult to believe that by sixteen the average pupil can have studied biology extensively enough to approach the doctrine of organic evolution in any really critical spirit. By eighteen, however, he is more experienced, and he certainly has more data on which to base an opinion one way or the other. If the idea of a continuity in nature is given to the younger pupil, even if only by implication, then, as he nears eighteen, he can be brought to look at himself through the evolutionary telescope. He learns that, ancient

though he thought it, the human race is really something very new, for what are one million years against the antiquity of the organic world? And of these one million years, only a few thousand belong to 'history'. man is still only in the experimental stage. To have got this better perspective where human civilization is concerned may save the older citizen from some impatience and from no little despair.

Moreover, the man who has learnt early that the future of the human race will be determined by its present, just as its present depends on what has happened in its past, this man is less to be excused for backing a short-sighted policy in public affairs when his opinion, as citizen in a democracy, is called for at the poll.

APPENDIX TO CHAPTER 13

A BIOLOGY COURSE

By NORMAN L. HOUSLOP, B A.

Senior Biology Master and Senior Geography Master at Battersea Grammar School

The biology course at Battersea Grammar School extends throughout the school from the lower third forms (age 11+) to the upper sixth form (age 17+). Biology is therefore the first science to appear in the curriculum, since the main physics and chemistry courses do not begin till the upper third year (age 12+), and it serves as a bridge leading from the humane studies to the more abstract physical sciences.

During the year's work with the *Lower Third Forms* (age 11+) our aims are modest—to arouse wonder, to satisfy curiosity, to appreciate beauty. At the same time the foundations are laid of a reverence for truth, and emphasis is placed on the value of accurate observation. The last two considerations naturally become more insistent during the later years of the course, though the 'truth' at which we aim will be scientific truth as established by scientific method, and so far as the second point is concerned we make no more lofty claim than that the powers of observation of *nature* are

improved. This is not the place to enter upon the vexed question of the 'transfer of training', but suffice it to say that at least the power to observe nature will have added another facet to the experience of the adult citizen, and one that he can ill afford to spare, and at best, since the methods of observation used in comparing one flower with another are essentially the same as those used in comparing e.g. one budget with another, there is some hope that the training will have more than particular application.

During the autumn term, study centres mainly round flowers, fruits, and the dispersal of plants and animals, but the truth of Professor Mackinnon's dictum that 'no biology worthy of the name can be taught to a child ignorant of the elements of chemistry and physics' is borne out by the fact that we have found it essential to devote the first six weeks of the second term of the lower third course to such chemical and physical topics as are necessary for the proper understanding of the rest of the work. Already, at this early stage, the concept of biological interdependence is beginning to emerge and indeed becomes explicit in connexion with the topics of the last half of the year's course, which centre on the growing plant, the woodland, and the pond.

In the *Upper Third Forms* (age 12+) we press beyond the motives of mere curiosity and wonder, and, especially during the second term in connexion with experiments to establish the conditions for the germination of seeds, the definite application of scientific method is attempted. The work is made as exhaustive and complete as the years and knowledge of the pupils permit.

The autumn term is devoted to the raw materials of plant food and their origin, and the spring term to the growth and feeding of plants, while the summer term is mainly concerned with showing the essential unity and continuity of living things. During this year, too, biological interdependence is again a keynote, for the work centres upon the environment of organisms, while the fundamental ideas of the life cycle and the meaning of inheritance are laid.

In the first year of our course we aim at arousing wonder,

satisfying curiosity, and improving observation of natural phenomena. In the second year we add a fourth aim, namely to establish a method of thought—scientific method. In our third year we aim to project our method of thought outside the laboratory. By the time the pupils have reached the *Lower Fourth* (age 13+) they have acquired the necessary minimum of knowledge for an understanding of the biology of mankind. They are at an age when interest in their own bodies is awakening and when the little ‘civilized savage’ of tenderer years is beginning to realize that he is a member of society. Furthermore, the syllabuses of all subsequent years from the upper fourth onwards are subject to the exigencies of public examinations. On all counts, therefore, this, the third year of the biology course, seemed the best in which to lay the foundations of those studies which are likely to prove of value to John as a citizen and as a man.

The first part of the lower fourth year is devoted to certain aspects of man as an animal and to his behaviour as a thinking being. Whenever possible an experimental approach is adopted—e.g. when considering nervous time reactions, or the threshold value for the sense of touch. The figures so obtained are used for the teaching of simple methods of manipulating statistics.

During the next part of the course the health of mankind, with special reference to his environment, carries the thread of the tale. Published statistics form the basis for these studies, and the treatment is mathematical (though in the main graphical). A definite attempt is made to evaluate different types of statistics and the conclusions drawn from them. The human note is maintained through a study of the life and works of some of the great pioneers—e.g. Jenner, Pasteur, Koch, Lister, &c.

Later we revert to physiology with an extended consideration of the three great rhythms, feeding, breathing, and excreting. From this we pass to plants and animals as sources of some of the raw materials of civilization, and the year’s work concludes with the study of reproduction, heredity, and the improvement of plants and animals. In connexion

with the last three problems the oneness of man with the rest of animate nature is emphasized and illustrated

The content of the *Upper Fourth Form* (age 14+) and *Fifth Form* (age 15+) courses is mainly dictated by the syllabus for the General Schools Examination. In addition to the investigation of the 'stock' types, however, the concepts which have emerged at an earlier stage are enriched and expanded, particularly those of reproduction and heredity. Furthermore, the evolutionary perspective which has hitherto been implicit, becomes explicit in the fifth form. In the course of these years, too, certain special problems such as population and the world's food supplies are dealt with, very material help being provided by the geography course.

In similar fashion, the syllabus for the *Lower and Upper Sixth Forms* (ages 16+ and 17+) for the most part is laid down by the demands of the Higher Schools Examination. Certain problems of importance in citizenship receive special attention, however. A course of one lecture a week in the lower sixth is given to sex, reproduction, heredity, and evolution, and in the upper sixth to genetics and eugenics. The upper sixth course is treated from a mathematical standpoint, the material being obtained from published statistics and also our own specimens from greenhouse, aquaria, and vivaria. In addition, once a week, the whole sixth form, upper and lower, foregathers for what may be called a 'discussion period'. No attempt is made to confine these discussions to specifically 'biological' or even 'scientific' fields, the only restriction being that the topic shall be one to which scientific methods of thought can be legitimately applied. The form which these discussion periods takes varies widely, and not infrequently the subjects which come up for consideration are problems of citizenship. Such topics as mental deficiency, equality and non-equality of men and races, the responsibilities of individuals and of states, and so on, are always popular and discussion is usually heated though friendly. In many ways this may be regarded as one of the most valuable periods in the week's work, for since we adopt the attitude of bystander or mediator, it enables us to see

the ultimate results of the science course from a more objective viewpoint than usual

It is worth noticing that even for those boys who, on leaving the fifth forms, take up modern and classical studies in the sixth, there is a course of lectures and discussions on modern science. This course, which includes a good deal of reference to modern biology and the problems of citizenship, is very popular with the pupils.

The foregoing account of the biology course at Battersea Grammar School is necessarily sketchy, but its aim is simple. Professor Mackinnon has shown what ideals are desirable in framing a course which shall profit future citizens. We have endeavoured to show that these ideals are something more than desirable—they are practical.

CHAPTER 14

ART

By J. E. BARTON, M A.

THE chapter on classics has already suggested the view that no study of ancient literature, history, or civilization can be adequate unless due attention is paid to those visible expressions, known as art, in which the societies of Greece and Rome embodied their communal ideals of life and their whole attitude to the universe. This is only a particular case of a general truth—a truth that English academic education has ignored for the best part of a century. In many quarters, even to the present day, 'art' in schools has been relegated to the position of a minor or extra subject, and the bulk of our educated class shows consequently a degree of ignorance and indifference in all aesthetic concerns, both public and private, which in any other civilized age would have seemed incredible.

The Victorian Attitude to the Arts

The majority of our public schools for boys were reincarnated in the nineteenth century and inherit the Victorian assumption that the practice of art is an isolated accomplishment, and the enjoyment of art an exotic taste. In the thirteenth century we were a nation of artists, and in spite of the social and intellectual cleavage which followed the Reformation no liberal education in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries was thought to be complete unless it included some measure of conscious appreciation, and some knowledge of fundamental principles, in the realms of music, architecture, and the plastic and pictorial arts. Not that these things always went very deep. The modern critic who looks at eighteenth-century sculpture, for example, can see at a glance the emotional thinness, the lack of big and broad conceptions, which is symptomatic of any art that expresses mainly the refinement of an exclusive and privileged class.

But according to their lights all educated people, down to the end of Georgian times, took it for granted that civilization without art was unthinkable.

When the old civilized order had fallen to pieces in the industrial revolution, and the sensibilities fed by popular handicraft had been blunted in the first crude onset of machine production, the pioneers of what is now known as public school education concentrated on ethics and literature, followed later on by natural science. 'Art' became an affair of drawing lessons, tolerated as one of the polite diversions, but possessing no vital importance in the scheme of character-building for an imperial race. Even in a classical education the visual arts of the ancients were neglected—Greek sculpture is still a 'special subject' for Greek honour students at Oxford and young men who passed through the most expensive English schools and universities might visit one of our major cathedrals and see it with eyes not less uncomprehending than those of any holiday-maker from any industrial slum. To the minds of our Victorian educators, many of them great men in their way, it simply did not occur that the non-literary arts of mankind are the obvious complement of literature and history, and more important than either, if the object of the student is to feel the spiritual motives by which whole societies were actuated.

The Modern Communal View of Art

The art which concerns citizenship is the art that binds men together in an ordered community, and expresses their devotion to common aims. It was just this sort of art which our teaching predecessors consistently overlooked. In Victorian times an 'artist' was an individual who worked in a studio and sent 'gallery' works to the Academy. The arts of the past, no less, were viewed in terms of individualism. A few names of old masters comprised the range of aesthetic interests, and most writers on art or on archaeology were primarily engrossed in the more or less futile exercise of classifying and attributing sculptures or paintings under the

names or 'schools' of particular artists. Medieval art, being mostly anonymous, did not lend itself to this treatment; hence, probably, the fact that the most valuable nineteenth-century contributions to art knowledge were those which paved the way for some constructive appreciation of the Romanesque and Gothic worlds. The last two generations have seen enormous additions to our aesthetic experience not only in the way of whole cultures, recently exhumed for our enlightenment, but also by the extension of such realms as those of Egyptian, Chinese, and early Greek art, all of which are now viewed with a sort of understanding that was not possible in 1900. The trend of modern art study has been to discount the individualistic and romantic standpoint, and to stimulate a broader view of the non-literary arts of the past, which regards them as documents, infallible because unconscious, of racial or communal or civic ideals.

Art Education for the Ordinary Pupil

In all subjects the curse of academic influence on school education is the tendency to organize and teach for the production of specialists, rather than for the enlargement of human life. A notable instance of this is the present-day treatment of school science, which began with the laudable aim of bringing children into touch with nature, and now for the most part is confined to a narrowly intellectualized training of potential scientists, who are only a fraction of any school. A similar danger in art is coming to be recognized. Only a few children will attain high skill in craftsmanship, not many are gifted with the sensibility to react in a high degree to the more subtle or sublime expressions of genius, but all children of good intelligence can be guided towards some useful understanding of buildings, the domestic crafts, town planning, and those more concrete aspects of art which relate to their own common experience of public dignity or amenity or entertainment. It is a fact that great strides have been made in art teaching, not least in our primary and other schools under local authorities. We have

moved a long way from the days of the lifeless 'freehand' exercise, and good teachers impart variety and freedom to art and craft lessons in a way that no doubt often suggests to their pupils a real connexion of aesthetic principles with daily life. Unhappily, for many children the art lesson is crowded out by the examination system precisely at the period when they begin to develop as persons. What they have learned as young executants is useful, but few of them go on to learn what is necessary for the good art-consumer. In other words, for the future citizen, whose whole surroundings, in city or home or place of amusement, will be determined by whatever standard of taste may happen to prevail in his time, whether actively among rulers and caterers, or passively among the general public. Plato saw that the foundations of good taste—by which I mean the instinctive preference for serenity, orderliness, visible common sense, and natural good rhythm—must be laid in early childhood and even in pre-natal days. But it is only during adolescence that a conscious grasp of art, in its general bearings, becomes possible. And this is the stage at which we usually neglect our opportunities, under pressure of other things.

The Spirit of Art in Present-day Industry

The 'teaching' of art is a convenient but misleading phrase. Neither enjoyment nor creation can be taught: the only methods of value are methods of inculcating root principles which the pupil must himself apply as he goes through life, and methods that help to maintain the atmosphere of fresh personal zest and contagion, in which alone the teacher can stimulate the interest and enlarge the vision of his class. There would be no gain to general citizenship by the needless multiplication of minor proficientes in the so-called 'fine' arts. Excellent as is much of the instruction now given in art rooms and art schools, no detached observer can deny that a good deal of the effort consists of designing in the air, with no immediate practical impulse. Some people cogently argue, to-day, that the system of art teaching, as it is officially

understood, is on the whole an obstacle to true aesthetic progress. Such progress is only attained (they think) when the quality called art is something that penetrates the life-blood of actual industries—largely of a mechanistic type—now engaging the normal interests of our society as a whole. I agree there are moments when many of us are tempted to sympathize with this view. By long association, the whole region of 'arts and crafts' has been identified with a kind of coterie sentimentalism that is essentially irritating to practical minds. Our world is an engineer's world, and the engineer and mechanic and man of science have already proved that without conscious reference to academic standards of art it is possible to create on lines that are parallel to those of the masters of other ages, though outward forms, materials, and conditions are in these days quite different by necessity. Aesthetically, the motor-car and the ocean liner have shown far more progress since 1900 than any of the fine arts, and this obvious fact inclines men to say, 'The real arts are those which are practised for real reasons, and beauty comes as a by-product of complete efficiency, which would only be impaired by the obsolete sort of decorative and "artistic" fuss still encouraged by art teaching in our schools.'

Art is not an Escape from Actuality

Remarks in this strain are frequent among intelligent people to-day, and perhaps it is not realized how far a similar train of reasoning has already influenced the best art teachers themselves. Every good municipal art school now aims mainly at connecting its work, in a vital way, with the actual industries of the district. No good art teacher of the younger generation is blind to the fact that an ideal system would unite all instruction with genuine factory conditions. Nothing is more out of date (though we still often hear it from plat-forms) than the conception of art as a mode of escapism, a refuge in which the fastidious or cultured may avert their eyes from the restless mass production of a machine-made civilization. The real and practical art of our time aspires

to make machinery its subservient instrument, and to use mass production for the purpose of spreading good design into every street and home. So long as the manufacturer and the middleman, no less than the multitude, are destitute of education in the modern sense of that word, the best attempts at teaching art on its executive side are more or less doomed to a certain sterility through lack of direct employment for the faculties they develop. All the more reason, then, why schools which propose to educate for complete citizenship should perceive the necessity of guiding children to a more discriminating and less sentimental judgement of art's importance, as a universal and pervading spirit in all works that are truly civilized.

Good or Bad Art Influences Everybody

The first point to grasp is that everybody is an art-consumer, whether he knows it or not. Every man, woman, and child, every day and without exception, is either being influenced for good by good art, or else is unconsciously sinking into a deeper mire of insensitiveness by complacent acceptance of the thousand forms of bad or sham art by which we are surrounded. With all our endless deliberations about education, and our enormous expenditure upon it, we lift no finger to check the forces of vulgarity (in the bad sense of that word) which steadily counteract the efforts of good schools or teachers. Nine out of ten children who come to school have already been poisoned from birth by the false aesthetic standards that prevail in their home environment. The day they can read, they become the prey of commercial press exploiters, who deliberately cater, in their 'comic' drawings and abysmally facetious text, for an insect mentality. Some providential instinct might warn the child away from moral wickedness, but these aesthetic degradations are far more insidious. In vision and thought, to say nothing of speech and manners, he is insensibly corrupted long before his teachers get him. In the eighteenth century a child might almost never see any work of man, however modest, which

had not a certain measure of order and decency and common sense. In our own day all art teaching must begin—there is no other way—by assuming that the teacher's work is primarily medical. The good taste which should be a child's natural birthright has been overlaid by the disease he has inherited from one century's mixture of neglect and nonsense. It is idle to suppose that any remedy can come from the mere extension of art study or art history lessons on academic lines. The problem is a baffling one, when we consider that the majority of our educated men show little or no response to living art, declare that they 'know nothing about it, but know what they like', and persist in regarding art as an accomplishment that has no vital bearing on the welfare of the community.

The Need of a New Standpoint

What we need urgently is a new standpoint, invading every classroom and every subject, reinterpreting art as an indispensable element without which all moral training is too rigid, all physical training too dogged, and all intellectual training too stolid. Art is not a thing we can first isolate and then define. Like 'justice' as expounded by Socrates in the *Republic* of Plato, it interpenetrates all the relations of an ordered life, and its effects can only be determined by surveying life as a whole. The executive 'art' that is taught in art rooms, and the lessons in which we try to illustrate the merits of great works, are only means to an end. Art itself is a transfiguration of every thought, tone, sight, act, and gesture, exalting and refining the whole atmosphere and temper of social life. Our grand difficulty is that we stand between two worlds. Behind us lies the world of handicraft, with the types of fine art of which popular handicraft was the seed-bed. Before us are the new possibilities of another world, in which constructive designers and engineers, working mainly for large public purposes, have the opportunity of giving soul to their creations by applying in new ways and new materials the same fundamental principles which gave beauty to the Parthenon. Guided by the eternal art instinct which never

wholly forsakes man, many of these modern workers have begun to produce fine things. But the fine things—for the child—are indistinguishably mixed, in our city life, with examples of meanness and ugliness which few of us resent because we take them for granted. the meanness of crudely sordid utility, and the ugliness of futile decoration that has no root in human delight. Brought up from infancy to habitual blindness, the child gains nothing from the mere statement that these are eyesores. He knows that his parents and most of his teachers accept them. Even if he is taken round the ordinary provincial art gallery, the pictures to which his attention will be called are little more than slick records of man's cheap sentiments and nature's sweetmeats. Nine out of ten children in this country have never seen a really good picture, and if they saw one, all the circumstances and psychology of their upbringing would induce them to regard it as 'queer'.

Functional and Constructive Principles

There is no getting over the conclusion that art training, for the future citizen, must now begin by cleaning the slate and approaching all human works from the functional end. The one aesthetic sincerity of which a modern English child is capable connects itself naturally with the mechanical developments of its own age. In this realm the query 'How will it work?' takes precedence of the question 'How will it look?' This must be our starting-point. Rhapsodies about paintings and sculptures are not only empty but harmful, unless a foundation has been laid in clear understanding of what constitutes good work in the useful and concrete arts of mankind. The practical arts and crafts are the only safe evidence from which beginners can learn the essential relations of art to social life and progress. Laws of good proportion can be inculcated quite early by manual training of an elementary kind. As the child develops and begins to know something of history he can be shown how all the fine arts, in a healthy society, come from the humbler crafts. He can

learn—from Gothic architecture, for instance—how changes of what is called 'style' are primarily a matter of engineering logic. He can see, under suitable guidance, that all mere application of ornament for its own sake is vicious. He can be made to grasp the cardinal law, not less true for machine-craft than for handicraft, that materials must never be forced against the nature of their own being. No abstract aesthetics are necessary to show a boy or girl, who has had this foundation, that the forms and ornament of a thirteenth-century church are good, while the tortured intricacies of late Gothic cleverness are bad. And if these simple principles of art are always associated with the moral laws of human evolution, it will soon be brought home to young people that taste is not a matter of caprice, but an appreciation of standards which involve deeply both human character and social welfare.

Civic Implications of Architecture and Sculpture

The art most obviously concerned with citizenship is architecture, and the most orderly civilizations have been those which accepted architecture as the mistress of all other crafts. Non-bookish children are able to follow with interest the embodiment in architectural terms of those political and religious ideals by which great societies in the past have been animated and held together. The art which springs most immediately from architecture is sculpture, and it is significant that sculpture, of all things, is the topic on which our populace and popular press display the most astonishing ignorance. Grand sculpture, answering to a widespread feeling for nobility in bold form, is the mark of a stable and well-ordered community, rooted in a firm religious belief, and knowing where it stands on the main issues of life. I know no exception to this rule, and it is equally true that the prevalence of feebly realistic or decorative aims in sculpture always goes with social disintegration. The few good sculptors who stand out in the chaos of our own age are men who have felt the impulse towards reconstruction which lies behind all sound art philosophy in times of uncertainty and

transition. When once the learner has begun to see that all good sculpture is architectural—that it still belongs, as it were, to the block from which it is hewn—he acquires his first glimpse of the truth that art communicates ideas directly by form, and not indirectly by narrative or representation. It is true of all arts, but peculiarly of sculpture, that the work itself creates the taste by which it is enjoyed. Photography, fortunately, can do far more for sculpture than for painting, and there is no reason why any pupil whose education is carried on to seventeen should not by that time have acquainted himself with all the historic types of great sculptural art. At the moment, any piece of new sculpture which emphasizes formal qualities is described by the press as ‘controversial’ yet any well-educated youth who knows the sculpture of the world by copious examples will find nothing to disconcert him in these modern aims. They may not wholly succeed, but at least he has some notion of what they are driving at, and does not approach them with a mixture of blank ignorance and vulgar prejudice.

Public Health, Order, and Tidiness

A highly distinguished modern artist of American origin remarked to me lately that many of the best developments in the recent public art of America derive largely from the feeling for hygiene which is now so prevalent over there. If cleanliness is next to godliness, it is also true that an instinct for social tidiness and good order must always have a good deal to say in every comprehensive scheme of art for the public environment. This is a point we can bring home gradually to the majority of children. Every travelled person is aware that the central and northern civilizations of Europe are far ahead of us in keeping the streets free from litter, and controlling the aggressiveness of hoardings or petrol stations. It is not an accident that cities which excel in these wholesomely negative ways are also the cities which have gone farthest in the positive development of good buildings and general amenity. I find it hard to believe that the public

untidiness we still find in England or France is a necessary gesture of political freedom, or something inherent in racial character. The difference lies, surely, in nothing more than a difference of early training. Negatives will not get us far by themselves; but something can be done in school life if the underlying conception of public health and sanity and harmony is allied at every stage to growing knowledge of the major works that creative ages have bequeathed to us. Our conventional 'art' phraseology has not yet lost its addiction to what I heard described, only the other day, as 'lovely bits' of scenery. The identification of art with a hobby for the picturesque is the most dangerously widespread of all popular fallacies, and it still infects even the bulk of our educated class. Art education for citizenship must ruthlessly discourage this vice. We shall not move a step until the masses begin to see that fundamental excellence, in all man-made works, is an affair of principle and of order, actuated by large and real purposes which affect society in its daily existence. Nobody supposes that a good Gothic or Georgian craftsman was a glib conscious exponent of any social philosophy. but he lived in a society which kept its eye firmly on the main things, and shaped its art instinctively with those main things in view.

Difficulties of Pictorial Art Instruction

As most of the errors by which art and art teaching have been degraded are errors that have sprung up in connexion with pictorial art, it follows that the pictorial side of art instruction is by far the most difficult and complex problem we have to face. For the vast majority of English people, children and adults alike, 'art' is a word that primarily suggests a gallery oil-painting in a gilt frame. Along with this deadly first misconception goes the other idea, that art is a luxury for the rich, an affair of rarity, or elaboration, or prestige. Even in sophisticated circles of modern culture the absurd priority accorded to painting has done harm: an exclusive preoccupation with pictorial art accounts in a large

measure for the cult of art for art's sake in which many otherwise intelligent people now indulge. There seems to be an ever-widening gulf between the interests of the general public and those of the few who really care for the fine arts, and this gulf is not likely to be bridged so long as our critics persist in concentrating on the painter, and in trying to persuade us that the aesthetic merits of a picture have no connexion with the painter's whole nature as a man, nor with the human and social experiences that he shares with mankind in general. If art is to be once more a civilizing force, we must get rid of the current infatuation for 'pure' art. There is no such thing, any more than there is pure soul or pure intellect. If this proposition seems too dogmatic, let us say that all art which matters, for our present purpose, must always be sensual and in a measure communal, as well as intellectual and spiritual. Children must learn that painting once was, and should be in any healthy society, subordinate to big unities of practical creation, which have something to say even for common minds.

What Standards Should we Apply to Pictures?

To connect the architectural and plastic arts with citizenship is comparatively easy, because on the face of them they imply some public significance, and a balance of discipline and freedom. Pictures, for the young mind, go as they please, and appeal to whims and caprices rather than to the sense of law and order. Left to themselves and to popular fiction and journalism, our young people regard the painter-artist as a man who 'seizes' ready-made aspects of nature and hands them on with a few trimmings. They need to be shown that unregulated nature can no more provide us with real pictures than she can produce chests of drawers. We often see pictures in nature, and credit her with giving us pictorial emotions: but we owe these to the art instinct within us, already developed by the education we have had from artists. Aesthetically deficient persons react to natural scenes and objects in all sorts of ways, but their reaction confuses what

is pictorial with a good deal of irrelevant matter. By their incapacity to distinguish the tripper's enjoyment of the Lake District from Cotman's or any other great artist's selective vision, they ignore the all-important factor of creative effort and constructive intelligence, which puts the genuine artist in his rightful place as a pillar of society. Pictorial instruction for the young should be firmly grounded on a study of the place which painters occupied in the public art of great ages. Miscellaneous picture-gazing, even if there are good pictures to gaze at, is only useful to the experienced eye. All illustrations used for school training, in the earlier stages, should be grouped round something in the way of a unifying idea. The casual and standardless hanging of 'school pictures' on the walls of classrooms, with which we are familiar, and on which some authorities spend good money, does actual harm. A diet of indiscriminate visual anecdote is no less enfeebling to the future citizen than a course of bad poetry or sentimental fiction. We guard the school reading of children because we know that it matters. We admit any school picture that is 'harmless' because in this realm our own early education was neglected. If the good is the enemy of the best, how much truer it is that harmlessness in so-called art has been the fountain-head of vague thinking and complacent mediocrity!

Value of Art for Patriotism and Internationalism

Citizenship means love as well as loyalty. Love of country, and of all that is best in its traditions, is inextricably bound up with affectionate understanding of the arts and crafts in which national character and history are both subtly and ingenuously expressed. An educated English citizen should grow up in intimate companionship with the spirit of our cathedrals and parish churches, our country towns and villages, our stately or homely builders and artisans and gardeners, our typical portraitists and landscape-painters. Beginning at home, citizenship goes on to understand the ideas and impulses which have vitalized the culture of other

nations. It has been said that music and the visual arts are the only true international language. A sound early education in the principles of art, and in the history of art's rise and decline in those creative societies which stand out as examples of rich communal living, is the best preparation for sympathetic approach to what 'foreign' nations really think and feel. The traveller whose eyes are thus opened will not carry parochial prejudices wherever he goes. He may not speak the tongue of a country, but he can see for himself what bonds of common aspiration unite its life to our own. No Jingoist has ever been widely educated in the arts. With our present means of communication, and the world-wide extension of community idealism that reflects itself in urban civilization everywhere, we realize more and more the importance of what we share with our neighbours, and the comparative insignificance of the 'imperfect sympathies', as Lamb called them, which divide us.

Conclusion: the Present Need and the Importance of Freedom

All this, the reader will think, is very general. It proposes no scheme or recipe by which schools can teach art on these wider lines; no system of syllabuses, or degree courses in art for teachers, that would bring this suggested enlargement of school education within the scope of school or university examinations. What has been said in this chapter indicates, I believe, the conviction of many teachers. Many of us feel profoundly the shortcomings of our curriculum in relation to what nobody can deny to be a fundamental requisite of civilized life: the awakening of intelligent response to the best things, old or new, that can be seen, with the consequent impulse to re-shape the man-made world by a more enlightened public opinion. But we are also sceptical of what might happen if the necessary changes were taken in hand by some official authority, and took the form of yet another academic department in our all-too-congested world of 'groups' and 'passes' and 'credits'. I have no doubt that the majority of those readers who share the views here set forth

are also of opinion that central reforms are called for in the examination tangle as a whole—reforms which will limit the examiner severely to a core of disciplinary subjects, and liberate an adequate portion of our school time for activities of a more flexible and cultural type. The essence of aesthetic education is a personal development. While the principles of good art—certainly of good public art—are eternal, the method of propounding or imbibing them must differ enormously with individuals, as well as with generations. We are dealing here with a matter which in actual school life is still in quite infant and tentative stages, though almost all the externals of European and American civilization are being swiftly transformed before our very eyes. What school time should be devoted to art illustration in regular classes, and how the future art-consumer's education is to be co-ordinated with the executive training of art classes that already exist, are problems that will only be solved very gradually and in many different ways, even if we assume that some change of heart in the centres of learning will some day encourage a supply of suitable teachers. The last phrase is misleading if it suggests that what we aim at, in making art the food of citizenship, is mainly an affair of special teachers and classes. All teachers, and all classes, are concerned in it. Ordered and specific instruction of some kind is necessary. Whatever forms this may take, in detail, it must follow the broad lines of natural art evolution, always subordinating what is fanciful or ingenious to the main architectural scheme, which embodies the general attitude to life of a whole civilization. It must not exalt new art at the expense of the old, but it must recognize that no appreciation of established styles or masters is genuine unless we can look at them with direct vision, and in a contemporary spirit. Art must always be felt as art, and never as a 'curio' or an antique. The main thing at present is a conversion of our administrators to a new point of view. Half the battle would be gained if half of our teachers—whatever their subject or 'qualifications'—were alive to the aesthetic needs of our children, and in their own lives had known the quickening power of man's best works.

III. CLEAR THINKING

CHAPTER 15

CLEAR THINKING

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IT would probably be generally agreed that clear thinking is a necessary condition of right thinking. But if we were asked to define clear thinking we should find much greater difficulty in arriving at an agreement on any formula. If I were asked to suggest a provisional definition, I should say that we think clearly in proportion as we are fully conscious of all the steps in our thinking which lead to our conclusions. Conversely we are thinking confusedly in so far as we are not fully conscious of essential steps in the process, as, for instance, if we assume or take for granted certain points, perhaps just the point that we have got to prove, without realizing it.

For practical purposes, however, we shall find it much more profitable not to spend too much time over the attempt at finding a formula, but to consider the general features of certain typical instances. We shall probably also find it more helpful to consider typical instances of the lack of clear thinking than of its presence. very often the best way of clearing up a general notion is by consideration of its opposite. And the choice of this line of approach corresponds here to an important principle of pedagogical method. If we are trying to teach our pupils how to think and to express their thoughts, it is essential to remember always that we are trying to teach them to think for themselves. It is desirable to avoid, therefore, as far as possible laying down any positive rules about how they are to think. The teacher can be most useful by warning them against obvious errors and pointing these out when they are committed, while leaving the pupils to make the positive effort for themselves.

Use of Language to Express Thought

It is obvious that the only kind of thinking that we can profitably discuss is thinking which is expressed in language. If there really are any 'thoughts that do lie too deep for' words it is an obvious waste of time to look for words in which to talk about them. We do sometimes meet people who claim to arrive at their conclusions by 'instinct' or 'intuition' without being able to say how they got there. Their conclusions may sometimes be right, though we do not know how often this may not be the case of the blind man keeping to the right path by accident, to use Plato's illustration. But even if such processes exist and sometimes give right conclusions, they are certainly not clear thinking, and they offer no help to any one else as they cannot be communicated or discussed. Speaking generally, however, we may say that an idea that cannot be expressed in words is not fully an idea at all. It is rather an incipient or rudimentary idea which is of no use for any purpose until it has been developed and brought into consciousness. It is like the 'confused noise without' in the theatre, which is only of importance to the progress of the drama when we see what it signifies. In most cases, at any rate, a claim to reach conclusions by instinct is merely an expression of mental laziness and a dislike of the effort and attention needed to discover and criticize our own processes of thought.

I conclude, then, that the first stage in the development of clear thinking is the attempt to put our thoughts into words. But, though essential to clear thinking, words are also a fruitful source of confusion, and it is with the possibilities of confusion that arise in connexion with the use of words that we shall be chiefly concerned.

*Sources of Confusion**1. Metaphor.*

We may deal first with a fruitful source of confusion, namely, the use of metaphor, that is to say, the application to one set of facts, of language which is, properly speaking,

applicable to another. The English language takes very kindly to metaphor, which makes it an admirable instrument for poetry, but much less admirable as an instrument for clear reasoning. By speaking of one thing in terms of another we are apt to arouse numerous vague associations connected with both things, and this, while it increases the possibilities of arousing an emotional response, increases also the difficulties of arriving at a clearly defined notion of what it is we are talking about.

Some time after the General Election of 1931 Mr Stanley Baldwin described the action of his political opponents in the following terms

'A little over a year ago the ship of state was heading for the rocks. The skipper had to change his course suddenly, and many of his officers and most of his crew deserted. It was a case of all hands to the pumps, and I signed on with my friends not for six months or a year. I signed on for the duration be the weather fair or foul, and I am going to stick to the ship whether it goes to the bottom or gets to port and I think the latter end is a good deal more likely.'¹

By the use of this language the emotions which are generally recognized as appropriate to officers who desert a ship are transferred to the ministers who resigned from the Labour Government, without any necessity of arguing whether the cases are really parallel or not. It is, indeed, obvious on cool reflection that in many respects the cases are not at all parallel. This illustrates admirably the dangers that lie in the use of metaphor. Metaphor implies an analogy so close between two different things that the language of one can properly be used of the other. If an analogy is clearly stated, if, for instance, we say definitely that the position of ministers who resign from the Government is precisely the same as the position of officers who desert from a ship, it is then possible to consider it and discuss it. It is unfortunately true that even when explicitly stated analogies are very often

¹ This passage is quoted by Miss L. S. Stebbing in her admirable little book, *Logic in Practice*, which is itself an excellent manual of clear thinking.

accepted without proper examination. But if they are not stated at all, but merely implied, as they are by the use of metaphor, we are much more likely to accept the analogy without realizing it. And to accept it without realizing it is a typical case of confused thinking.

I would suggest that a profitable exercise in education for clear thinking would be a systematic hunt for metaphors in a varied selection of literature. This would make our pupils conscious of the implications of the use of metaphor and would give them the habit of being on the look-out for it. We should then require them to set out in plain terms the analogy that was implied. They would follow up this by an analysis of the elements in the two situations given in the analogy, and then, by comparing the results of the analysis and seeing how far the elements of the two situations coincided, they would be able to judge for themselves how far the analogy was really sound.

2 *Ambiguity*

A second source of confusion in the use of language is ambiguity. It is a common and natural assumption that one word normally stands for one fact, and that therefore all the statements which include that word convey to ourselves and others exactly the same fact. Unfortunately, as we know quite well when we think of it, this assumption is far from true. Many words are ambiguous, and their ambiguity may deceive the person using them quite as often as his hearers.

There are of course obvious cases of ambiguity where by accident the same word has come to be used of entirely different objects, like the bark of a tree and the bark of a dog. There is not much danger of confusion in such cases. The danger arises when the same word is used in two or more slightly different senses which have arisen from the same origin and will very likely pass imperceptibly into one another. A particular case of this is where the same word has come to be used in a wider and a narrower sense. In such cases it is very easy in argument to pass from a statement about it in its wider sense to a conclusion about it in

its narrower sense, or vice versa, without noticing that we have done so

An instance of this is the use of the word 'bias'. This word is sometimes used to include any form of emotional preference, as for instance interest in one subject rather than another, but it may also be used in a narrower sense as implying a prejudice in favour of one opinion rather than another. It is obvious that our conclusions about bias in the wider sense would be very different from our conclusions about it in the narrower. For instance, we might say of a historian that he had a bias in favour of ecclesiastical history, meaning by that that he was specially interested in that subject. A bias in this sense of a special interest would probably improve his thinking about the subject in which he was interested. But he might also be said to have a bias in favour of a particular view. He might want, for instance, to prove that the Pope was always right or always wrong in ecclesiastical disputes. Bias in this sense would equally obviously be likely to have an unfavourable effect on the accuracy of his historical researches. When we hear statements, for instance, to the effect that it is impossible to avoid some bias in our thinking, we should be very careful to ascertain in which sense the word is being used.

Another such instance may be found in the use of the terms 'science' and 'scientific'. These terms are often used to imply no more than careful, accurate, and objective study of facts. But they may also be used to imply all the characteristics of a highly developed natural science, such as physics, which implies the possibility of precise measurement, of expression in mathematical terms, of testing theories by controlled experiment, &c. When we hear questions raised as to whether such and such a subject is a science or whether it is being treated scientifically or not our answer will probably depend on the sense in which the term is being used.

There are other cases where a word has acquired different senses which have grown out of each other or out of a common origin, but have diverged considerably in the process. A very good instance of that is the word 'law'. An elderly

clergyman writing to the *Daily Herald* some years ago concluded his letter with the words, 'May I plead that we should humbly return to obedience to one of the immutable laws of God—the law of supply and demand' I might quote also in this connexion a statement of a former pupil of mine, to the effect that when we invented aeroplanes we broke the law of gravity. It would be a first-rate exercise in clear thinking to require a pupil to examine these two statements and to discover their absurdity.

3. *Vagueness*

Confusions arising from ambiguity of words are only one form of the general fault of vagueness. We are in a state of vagueness whenever a word calls up to us a mass of confused ideas, images, and emotions which we only dimly perceive without discriminating one from the other. The usual treatment recommended for this is an insistence upon a precise definition of the terms used, and certainly the attempt at definition is a useful exercise. It should include also the attempt at discovering flaws in suggested definitions put forward by ourselves or other people. We may often get very amusing results by going through a discussion after a definition has been proposed and substituting the proposed formula of definition for the original word, wherever it occurs. This sometimes produces startling results even in the work of apparently the most careful writers. But the work of definition in the sense of substituting a formula for a single word is only of very limited usefulness. We cannot use definition in most subjects as we can in geometry. The whole discussion contributes to clearing up the meaning of the term. Indeed, it very often needs a prolonged discussion before we can discover how we are using it.

General Statements

This consideration is of vital importance in connexion with the use of general terms, and with the making of general statements in which these terms occur. So much discussion,

particularly on political and social questions, consists in general statements that we might well say from one point of view that the essence of clear thinking consisted in knowing how to make and to use general statements. An essential point that must be insisted upon in this connexion is that the meaning of a general statement can only be arrived at in its application. We can never be sure that we know what a statement means until we see what conclusions have been drawn from it. There is a story of a young member of a well-known Catholic family who for a time fell into heresy and maintained that the existence of God could not be proved by reason. Cardinal Manning sent for him and offered to prove it to him by a perfectly irrefutable rational argument. 'You will admit', he began, 'that you yourself exist.' To which the young man very properly replied, 'Not in any sense that can be of any controversial value to you.' We may say in general that we only understand a general statement fully when we see it applied to particular instances. I have found a very good rule to insist on in teaching pupils or students how to write is, 'Never make a general statement unless you are prepared to illustrate and support it by particular instances.'

The assumption that one can attach a meaning to a general statement without being conscious of its applications is the source of one of the most obvious symptoms of confused thinking, namely, self-contradiction. One of the most common forms of self-contradiction is making a general statement and then refusing to apply it to particular instances. We must all recognize that there is something wrong when we have been convicted of doing this. But it must not be forgotten that there are two possible ways of correcting the error. We may stick to our original general statement and resolutely apply it to the particular instance: that form of correction is what people generally imply when they talk about being logical. But the demand that we shall be logical in that sense may very often be quite illegitimate, because it forgets that there is another possible way of regaining self-consistency, and that is by modifying our original general statement. Indeed, in most cases we are much more likely to

be right if we adopt this method, for it is generally far more probable that we have been hasty or confused about our general statement than about the particular instance with which we are probably much more familiar.

Confusion in general statements is made particularly easy when they are expressed in abstract terms, as for instance, when we speak of communism or capitalism instead of communists or capitalists. Of course a creed or an institution is not the same thing as the sum of the individuals who hold it or work it. But the one is very often carelessly substituted for the other in discussion. In any case it is impossible to understand a creed or an institution unless we have an idea of how it works in concrete particular cases, and we cannot make significant general statements about it unless we are clear how they are verified in such cases. Similar dangers arise when we apply a singular term to a society or group, and consequently tend to personify it and to think of it as a single individual. This is particularly common when we are dealing with countries, as Germany, France, or England. I remember a meeting of a discussion society, shortly after the War, in which a speaker was describing the hardships produced in Germany by the continuation of the blockade after the Armistice. An elderly city councillor present denounced him for raising such points with the words, 'Germany has sinned, and Germany must suffer.' More recently Mr. G. K. Chesterton, in speaking of the Treaty of Versailles, stated that he considered it undignified for 'England to discuss it as if England had not signed it'. In all such cases when collective nouns are used, it is a very good exercise to ask of what individuals the statement is true. If we asked who in Germany had sinned and who in Germany was suffering, the argument would obviously take a very different form from what it would do if we spoke of Germany as a single individual, and similarly with reference to the signature and discussion of the Treaty of Versailles. There are many other possible confusions arising in connexion with the use of general terms, but perhaps these instances will suffice for our purposes.

Irrelevance

We have been speaking, in the main, of confusions arising from the use of words. Such confusions are among the causes which may produce one of the commonest symptoms of confused thinking, namely irrelevance. But this may arise from so many different causes and may take so many different forms that it deserves a short consideration to itself, though for that very reason it is impossible to treat it at all exhaustively. Nor is it easy to lay down any simple set of rules for detecting and avoiding it. But one general rule of method may, if constantly borne in mind, help in this direction. We shall find it much easier to avoid irrelevance if we acquire the habit as far as possible of conducting our thinking by the asking of questions. We should try always to put the problem in the form of a definite question and to ask of each idea that comes into our head how far it helps to answer that question. Of course this in itself is not always an easy task, and there is no infallible rule for acquiring this habit automatically. The price of relevance is eternal vigilance. But even the purely verbal habit of murmuring to ourselves, 'What is the exact question that I have to answer?' may be of some help.

Teaching Methods

It might be thought that the moral of this was that the proper method for the teacher was the Socratic method of question and answer; but in fact, though this method is valuable in the early stages of training for clear thinking, it has serious limitations. It is natural that this should be so, because it is obvious that if it is relied on too much its effect will be to save the pupil the trouble of defining the question for himself. I have often known students who attain a considerable degree of facility in discussion and yet fail entirely when called on to construct a systematic train of argument by themselves. To give them practice in this should be the object of the essay. I should suggest that in the early stages of essay-writing it is desirable always to set the essay in the form of a definite question. A small boy at school will have

the foundations of precise thinking laid much better by being asked, 'Do you like summer or winter best, and why?' than by being set to write an essay on summer. Later on, of course, it may be desirable to set essays in the form of a simple title, even, perhaps, on such well-worn themes as, for instance, Patriotism or Courage or Liberty. The fact that these subjects can so easily provide an occasion for a flow of confused vapourings is, of course, an advantage rather than the reverse. It is impossible to teach any one to avoid confused vapouring unless they are put into a situation in which there is some risk of falling into it. And the first requisite for teaching them to avoid it is to make it clear that they are expected to lay down for themselves a definite question or set of questions on the subject which they have to answer.

False Clear Thinking

These, then, are some of the most obvious and typical instances of confused thinking. A complete analysis and enumeration and systematic classification of all possible forms would obviously take us far beyond the permissible limits of a single chapter. But it is impossible to leave the subject without saying something about the dangers of false clear thinking, which may be equally serious, though perhaps not so frequent as the dangers of vagueness and confusion. I should like to quote here the wise words of one of the ablest of the younger generation of philosophers. He applies them particularly to the study of philosophy, but they are obviously capable of a much wider application than this.

'It is a grave fault in a philosopher to be content with a confused account where he could give a clear one. But it is also a fault to dismiss either a rival philosopher's contentions or a particular conception as not worth consideration because they are incapable of really clear statement. . . To give our Philosophy clearness and precision at the expense of excluding from consideration or even dogmatically denying whatever we cannot make clear and precise, may be to render our work worse for this, not better.'¹

The author suggests as the chief causes of the impossibility

¹ A. C. Ewing, *Idealism*, p. 9.

of arriving at clear statements on some subjects the necessary defects of human intelligence and the limitations of language. But it is also possible that it may arise from the nature of the facts themselves. It is certainly necessary to try to discover such system as we can in the facts, but we may easily fall into the temptation of imposing an order and a simplicity on reality which it does not in fact possess. For instance, it is certainly a gain to clear thinking when we can classify and tabulate our facts into clearly defined groups. But the facts themselves may be such that they will not fall into these groups of themselves. We might easily be led into grave error if in order to force them in we ignored or denied important features which were really there and really relevant to the argument.

We have already had indications of the possibility of an illegitimate demand for clear thinking when we were speaking of the limitations of the method of definition and of the dangers of too rigid an application of general rules to particular instances. Another instance may be found in a tendency which is very widespread in many fields of study. It is very common to discover a simple principle of explanation which seems to account very well for some of the facts with which we are dealing; and then we often fall in love with this explanation, just because of its clearness and simplicity, so that we desire to use it as the single explanation of all the facts, even at the cost of ignoring or distorting many of them. Instances will probably readily suggest themselves to any one who is familiar with recent discussions in anthropology, psychology, or social and political theory.

There is one special form of fallacious clear thinking which deserves particular attention because it is so widely spread. The ancient Greeks were familiar with the sophistical argument which they knew as the Sorites. This consisted in raising the question, 'How many stones make a heap?' You asked whether one did, whether two did, and so on, so that at some point your victim was faced with the necessity either of saying that the addition of one stone turned it into a heap when it was not a heap before or of being unable to recognize

the existence of such a thing as a heap at all. That form of the sophism would not be regarded as important now, but in a slightly disguised form it reappears very frequently, particularly in political and social discussion. One should always suspect its presence whenever one is faced with the question, 'Where are you going to draw the line?', if by that is implied, as it generally is, that you have no business to draw a line at all, or that a line drawn in one place is just the same as a line drawn in another.

A good modern instance occurred towards the end of the War and immediately afterwards, when an attempt was made to check excessive profit-making in the supply of certain goods. The Government passed a Profiteering Act and the tribunals which administered it were faced with the task of arriving at a standard of reasonable profit. They fixed the general standard at $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent., and those who objected to the Act made very merry over the decision by asking whether a man who made a profit of 33 per cent. was a good citizen, while one who made a profit of $33\frac{2}{3}$ per cent. was a wicked profiteer. But though there were many valid objections to the Act, this particular objection was entirely fallacious. The fact that the exact line to be drawn was necessarily arbitrary did not disprove the contention that there was an enormous difference between, say, a profit of 25 per cent. and one of 250 per cent. All sorts of consequences might arise from profits of the latter order becoming general which would not arise in the former case. Similar arguments may often be heard in discussions about liberty, when it is suggested that if you admit that any restrictions on liberty are desirable, there is no essential difference between you and the most tyrannical dictator. Or in discussions on the right of resistance or revolution, we may often hear it argued that if we admit that resistance to an established government is ever right, we are not justified in criticizing any kind or degree of resistance to any government or any measure.

The general assumption at the back of all these 'where-are-you-going-to-draw-the-line' arguments, as I should like to christen them, is that if one thing passes into another by

imperceptible gradations there is really no difference between them. But the principle has only to be stated in general terms to be seen to be false. We might apply it equally well in the realm of sense perception if we said that because blue passed into green by imperceptible gradations we had therefore no right to regard royal blue as any different from lime green or that, because we cannot say, to a fraction of a degree, when the weather ceases to be cold, and becomes hot, there is no difference between 80 degrees in the shade or 20 degrees below zero ¹

It is very important to recognize that a great part of our thinking on practical affairs, both public and private, is necessarily quantitative in character ² It is comparatively rarely that a practical question admits of being expressed in the simple antithesis: 'Is A right or is B right?' or, 'Do you want A or B?' Far more often the only sensible way of dealing with it is to ask 'How much of A and how much of B?' It is generally the case that A may produce certain advantages and B may produce certain different advantages. Our practical problem, then, is to pursue A till it begins to conflict with the advantages produced by B, when we have to try and strike the most satisfactory balance between them. People who talk loudly about being logical, which is generally a sure symptom of entire ignorance of logic, mean by it that if you pursue A at all you ought to do so to the utmost limit in entire disregard of B.

An interesting instance of this application of false logic was to be found in a correspondence in *The Times* some time ago in which Mr. Bernard Shaw and Professor Ernest Barker took part. Mr. Shaw advocated the policy of a complete equalization of all incomes. Professor Barker expressed the view that,

¹ Another phrase which is a very common symptom of this fallacy is 'It's only a difference of degree'. Very often what is only a difference of degree from one point of view may produce totally different results, as when a small dose of strychnine acts as a tonic and a large dose is fatal. A doctor who gave the latter instead of the former could not defend himself by saying that it was only a difference of degree, and that if the patient had been 'logical' he would not have noticed the difference.

² For a full discussion of this I may refer to the brilliant chapter in Graham Wallas's best book, *Human Nature in Politics*, chapter 5.

while the present inequality of wealth was obviously harmful and should be greatly reduced, he judged from his own experience that absolute equality and the consequent inability by one's own efforts to increase one's income in any degree would take away a great source of interest in life. Mr Shaw replied that such an argument was entirely valueless unless Professor Barker was prepared to state beforehand the exact degree of inequality which he would allow. He evidently thought that this argument had refuted Professor Barker and established his own position. But to me this seems an excellent instance of the kind of false clear thinking of which I am speaking. It is obvious that here was a case of two rival considerations, both of which had some claim to be taken into account. The point at which the most satisfactory compromise and the maximum degree of satisfaction of both kinds could be reached could in any case only be decided by experiment and was probably not an exact point at all, but an area of indefinite boundaries somewhere between the two extremes.

Subjects through which Clear Thinking can be Taught

It remains now only to say a word about the subjects by means of which clear thinking can most easily be taught.

It will be remembered that, as has been suggested above, the greater part of the work of teaching will consist in instruction how to avoid certain errors and dangers. It follows, then, that it is only possible to teach this in connexion with subjects in which the temptation to such errors might possibly arise. In mathematics, for instance, owing to the nature of the subject and the symbolism which has been constructed to express it, there is, practically speaking, no temptation to fall into these errors. Mathematics, therefore, just because it is itself a model of clear thinking, is of little or no value for teaching clear thinking in other subjects. Certain other subjects may provide useful introductory practice in avoiding some of the errors which lie at the basis of confused thinking. The study of a foreign language, for instance, particularly, I believe, classical languages, can be a useful training in the habit of

looking through the word to the thing which it signifies, which is an essential condition of clear thinking. I might add that if it is to have this effect it must be taught with this object in mind. A good deal of language teaching, as commonly given, is of no value in this direction.

But the habits acquired in the study of language are not likely to be applied of themselves to other subjects unless direct instruction in their application is given. And therefore the greater part of the teaching of clear thinking will have to be done by practice in discussion and argument on subjects in which confused thinking is possible. It can be done in connexion with history. It can be done to a certain extent in the teaching of literature, so far as that consists in rational discussion and not in emotional expression of likes and dislikes. But above all it can be done by argument and discussion of social and political questions, including, one may add, the questions of domestic politics which arise in the school or university to which the students belong, and the social and moral problems which arise in connexion with their daily lives.

CHAPTER 16

ACCURATE THINKING

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Psychological Causes of Inaccuracy

Prejudice

IT must be obvious to all those who have reflected on the matter that inaccurate thinking is not primarily the result of ignorance of logic, although knowledge of logical principles may be a help towards getting rid of it. There are other causes of inaccurate thinking of a psychological kind. These are, for example, our prejudices, our tendency to think along habitual grooves, our tendency to experience emotions in connexion with some words or phrases so that we are led immediately and unreflectingly to accept or to reject propositions using those words or phrases, our tendency to be convinced by certain authoritative methods of speaking, and even our tendency to be misled by certain dishonest tricks of argument until the nature of these tricks has been pointed out to us.

Let us consider briefly each of these in turn. We use the word 'prejudice' for those tendencies in our mind to determine our opinions on practical rather than intellectual grounds. Our opinion of whether income tax should be reduced by lowering the standard rate of tax or by increasing children's allowances is inclined to be determined by the fact of whether or not we, ourselves, have several young children. Our opinion on disarmament is likely to be predetermined if we earn our living as members of the fighting forces or if a considerable part of our income comes from shares in armament manufacturing firms. Our opinion on the advisability of teaching a new subject in school is likely to depend on whether we earn our living by teaching and writing on this subject. None of us is free from prejudice.

since all of the most important subjects on which we must form opinions are matters which affect us practically one way or another. We can, however, gain in accuracy of thinking if we are aware of our prejudices instead of being blind to them, and if we deliberately form a habit of trying to think on those matters on which we are most likely to be prejudiced in some way which detaches them from our personal interests.

Habits of thought follow the same laws as habits of body. Old thoughts are thought more readily than new ones, and the glow of conviction with which we greet certain statements is as likely to mean that these statements fall into the well-worn grooves of our thought habits as that we have been given any rational ground for believing them. This tendency of our mind is well known to the practised orator. None of us can be free from habits of thought, nor would it be reasonable to try to be so. It is possible, however, to devise exercises of transposing familiar material into unfamiliar settings by which we can detect the influence of our thought habits and so reduce their compelling power over our beliefs.

We also have emotional habits connected with particular words and phrases so that these may have an emotional colouring which tends to determine the acceptance or rejection of the ideas conveyed by them. Thus an eminent statesman, in a wireless address in defence of tariffs, referred to 'foreigners dumping their goods on our shores'. The word 'dumping' has a precise meaning—that of exporting goods to sell below cost; it also has a strong emotional tone tending to make us disapprove of the action referred to. In this passage, it was not used with its precise meaning since there was no suggestion that the goods in question were to be sold below cost. It was used as a word conveying strong emotion of disapproval, whose objective meaning could have been conveyed unemotionally by such a phrase as 'exporting his goods to us'. The word 'foreigners' has a similar emotional tone, although less strong. The emotional habits roused by a word are not, however, entirely determined by the choice of word itself, but also by the tone of voice in which it is said, and in this particular address there was an intonation, expressing

loathing and contempt, on the words 'foreigners', 'dumping', and even on 'goods'; so that while listening to the speaker it was necessary to remind oneself that goods were not in themselves undesirable, but were such things as food, clothes, children's toys, and so on. The explanation of the statesman's emotions was, of course, that he was thinking of these things as interfering with our own production and not as objects useful to ourselves. Nevertheless, it might well be objected that in calling up such emotional associations he was making more difficult the rational decision which he was inviting his hearers to make, between the relative advantages of an increased supply of useful articles and of increased activities in our own workshops. A speaker on the opposite side would, of course, have used other phrases. He might, for example, have spoken of 'our fellow workers in other countries sending us the goods they produce in their factories', a phrase from which the emotional words determining rejection have been eliminated and others tending to determine acceptance have been substituted.

It is, of course, natural that propagandists should use such words and phrases, just as they use every other device for making people accept their opinions. It is, however, rather unlikely that a wise decision on controversial affairs will be the resultant effect on the hearers of the two sets of forces applied by speakers on both sides using such emotion-charged words. It is, therefore, much to be desired that people generally should become aware of the existence of such emotional phraseology and should be able to discount its effects.

The use of such phraseology matters less in propaganda than it does in an individual's own thinking. The statesman may have spoken of foreigners as he did simply as an oratorical trick in order to carry conviction to his hearers. If so, it is a matter of no great importance, so long, at any rate, as the hearers can protect themselves against such influences by recognizing their psychological nature. But if the statesman really thought of foreigners like that, not only for public purposes but in the quiet of his own mind, this twist of thought

would be a terrible danger. The statesman in question has, in fact, the reputation of being an unusually honest man.

Suggestibility

The method of presenting opinions so that the mind of the hearer or reader tends immediately to accept them because of their manner of presentation is called the method of 'suggestion'. Its method is an authoritative, convinced manner of speaking and constant repetition without argument of the same statement. Our tendency to respond to this method of presentation by immediate belief is called our 'suggestibility'. People differ in the amount of their suggestibility, but we probably all respond to this kind of intellectual bullying to some extent. It is widely used by public speakers in pulpits and on political platforms. The best remedy against it is probably a knowledge of its technique so that the use of it by a speaker may be immediately recognized.

Tricks of Argument

The dishonest tricks of argument are many. Two of the most widely used are the 'extension' in which the speaker attributes to his opponent a more extreme statement than that which was actually made, and the 'diversion' in which he goes on to talk of another matter in such a way as to mislead his hearers into supposing that he has adequately dealt with the previous argument. These tricks may be used in writing as well as in argument. Thus a writer, arguing against the statement that the condition of the workers in Russia is better than it was before the Revolution, may point out that Russia is no Utopia for the workers and that the Bolsheviks savagely murdered the Czar and all the royal family, thus by an extension and a diversion giving an appearance of having refuted a statement which has, in fact, not been dealt with at all.

There are many other such dishonest tricks. One pointed out by Bentham is that of discrediting the attempt to remove one evil A by pointing out some other evil B which remains

For example, the attempts of pacifists to abolish war is sometimes discredited by pointing out the large loss of life which results from road accidents, and attempts to relieve the victims of a famine in China may be discredited by reference to the number of people suffering from shortage of food at home. This is, of course, a dishonest trick of argument only if the removal of the evil A does not prevent the removal of B. Generally B is an evil against which the speaker has no intention of taking any action in any case. The protection against all of these dishonest tricks of argument is obviously to know their nature and so to recognize and avoid them.

Illogicalities

Such psychological causes of inaccurate thinking are obviously not independent of logical ones. Prejudices, habits of thought, &c., may mislead us by making our thinking illogical or by making us unable to see logical fallacies that would otherwise be obvious. This failure to distinguish an illogicality is often helped by the fact that trains of reasoning which we hear or read (or, indeed, those that occur in our own minds) are not commonly in complete logical form. When we complete it, an apparently innocent train of reasoning may turn out to be some familiar logical fallacy. The fallacy, indeed, need be of no great logical subtlety since an incomplete argument may pass muster even though, when it is fully displayed, the conclusion may be seen to have no logical relation whatever to the premises. When, for example, there was discussion of the desirability of a general speed limit, an official of a motoring organization said 'Most road accidents take place in built-up areas where high speed is impossible. This proves that high speed is not in itself dangerous.' This is a complete *non sequitur*, yet in my experience this fact is not immediately apparent to most persons. It becomes clear when the argument is stated in other terms. 'Most deaths from wild animals take place in countries where there are no Polar bears. This proves that Polar bears are not in themselves dangerous.'

Requirements of Accurate Thinking

Before discussing its teaching in schools, let us consider shortly what are the requirements of accurate thinking. The beginning of all exact thinking is classification, i.e. the putting of particular objects into classes composed of other objects with common properties, putting these classes themselves into larger classes and so on up an ascending scale of generality. Such classification serves the ends of exact thought when it follows certain principles: when the common properties are important ones and are neither superficial nor mere resemblances in our own emotional attitudes towards the objects classified. The erroneous classification of whales as fishes is, for example, based on a superficial resemblance and does not serve the purposes of exact thought. The classification of Bolsheviks or of Nazis in the class of criminals is based on resemblance in the individual classifier's own emotional reactions, and also does not serve the ends of exact thought. A modern German psychologist's classification of Jews, Frenchmen, and Bolsheviks as forming a separate class of humanity is open to the same objection.

Much practical thinking and all thinking of a scientific or philosophical order depends on skill in the forming of the higher orders of classes which have other classes as their members. All people can refer their own particular Fido to the general class of dog. They learn later that all dogs belong to the more general class of mammals and that mammals belong to the more general class of living organisms. The exact use of these class names of higher order is beset by its own peculiar difficulties, and while free use of such terms is not uncommon amongst those who think inaccurately in the social sciences, a skilled and accurate use of them is one of the most important gifts of a successful education. We may therefore notice, as the first requirement of accurate thinking, the knowledge of and expertness in use of class terms. For thinking about social questions we need even class terms of a very abstract kind (such as 'wealth', 'utility', 'consumer', &c.) not commonly found in the speech of a young child.

Against the inexpert use of abstract terms often found in confused thinking, one of the best remedies is that already mentioned by Professor Field, the habit of trying to illustrate any general statement by means of a particular example.

Secondly, there should be sufficient knowledge of the nature of logical relations to be able to tell whether an argument when stated in its full logical form is or is not valid. Where classifications are clear cut (i.e. when what is thought of can definitely and unambiguously either be put into a class or else shut out from it) we have the simple relations of traditional logic. If we know that all animals that suckle their young are mammals and that all whales suckle their young, the inference that whales are mammals is an easy one. Practice in putting such statements in syllogistic form is, however, necessary because these conditions of validity may be much less clear when the argument is incompletely stated and fallacies may easily escape attention which depend on such imperfect syllogisms as that with an undistributed middle. It may, for example, not be obvious without explanation that the above conclusion would not follow from the major premiss. All mammals suckle their young.

The difficulties of thought are much greater when classification is not clear-cut, but it is nevertheless a third requirement for accurate thinking that there should be sufficient understanding for practical purposes of the conditions for valid thinking in such cases. There may, for example, be no sharp dividing line between A and not-A, as there is not between animals and vegetables, between workers and capitalists, or between large and small. Nevertheless these class names stand for real classes and for classes about which it is necessary to think accurately. A good example of inexpert thinking about such classes is to be found in the fallacy of the Sorites discussed by Professor Field. It is, indeed, very commonly thought that if we can point out that a classification shows this character, then we have sufficiently demonstrated that logical thought about it is impossible. Many modern writers, even of some distinction in the world of thought, seem to think it is sufficient refutation of the whole

Marxian system to point out that capitalists and workers do not form sharply divided classes. This would be equally true of the classification of living organisms into animals and vegetables, which is not regarded as a reason for denying the difference between a cabbage and a rabbit or for failing to think clearly about this difference.

Another case in which the sharp classification of the traditional logical scheme is not satisfied is when some members of a class B belong to class A and others belong to the class not-A, but there is nevertheless a genuine tendency for membership of the class B to be accompanied by membership of the class A. Thus, not all persons who earn little are Socialists, but there is a definite tendency for them to be so. This condition is also found very commonly in the biological sciences. We may call it the case of incomplete correlation. It is systematically dealt with in the science of statistical methods (essentially a branch of logic although it is not treated as such).

An elementary treatment of problems of this order should be possible in the later years of school life. Such problems are bound to occur in any treatment of the social sciences, and must already have been met if there has been previous study of biology. The difficulty of dealing with them is partly a difficulty of unfamiliarity which may be overcome when it is noticed that the same difficulty occurs in such a familiar pair of conceptions as large and small, and partly the lack of an adequate vocabulary to deal with them. The case of incomplete correlation, for example, requires a phrase not found in the vocabulary of most people: 'that B has a tendency to be A.' Such a phrase or an equivalent is essential to an understanding of the social sciences. The mere possession of it will be enough to prevent the common error of supposing that it is sufficient refutation of the statement of the dependence of A on B merely to point to members of the class A not-B and of not-A B, that, for example, the refutation of the proposition that persons who earn little tend to be Socialists can be effected by pointing to cases of wealthy men who are Socialists and of poor men who are Conservatives.

A fourth requirement is the practical knowledge of the principal fallacies and sources of error, not only the logical ones but also those of a psychological nature. The logical knowledge must, of course, include those fallacies which depend on formal defects of the relationship between the propositions concerned. The psychological sources of error will include such factors as prejudices, thought habits, effects of emotional phraseology, and suggestibility. Intermediate between the logical and psychological sources of error are such dishonest controversial devices as extension, the diversion, &c

While much can be done for accurate thinking by a study of sources of error, we must avoid so concentrating on these as to give the impression that there is no valid method of argument. It may, at first sight, appear to one who has studied the various sources of error in thought and discussion that there is no method of changing the opinion of an opponent except by using some dishonest device, such as suggestion technique or influencing him by the emotional choice of words, or else by using a logical argument in which (since the conclusion is implied by the premisses with which presumably the hearer already agrees) there is no real change in the hearer's opinions, for he has only been told something that he knew before.

Even apart, however, from giving a hearer a new piece of information, there is a perfectly valid way of changing his opinions in argument. This depends on the psychological fact that for any logical interaction to take place between two beliefs it is necessary that these should have been brought into relationship in the mind of the person holding them. While a reasonably logical person will not make two inconsistent assertions at the same time, he may very well have in his mind a very large number of opinions which, if expressed as statements, would be inconsistent with one another. An opinion is merely a potential statement and, until an opinion A has been expressed or thought together with an opinion B, the question of their consistency or inconsistency cannot have arisen in the mind of the person holding them.

Now the minds of all of us are full of a large number of mutually inconsistent opinions. This can be demonstrated by asking people a large number of questions about their opinions, being careful, however, not to ask questions consecutively about two opinions between which an inconsistency is suspected. Under these conditions, a large number of inconsistent opinions will be elicited. Thus a large number of subjects amongst whom I made such an inquiry believed both that every statement made in the Bible was literally true, and also that Jonah was not swallowed by a great fish. If these two statements are put side by side, it is quite clear that one or other must be false. They are held as inconsistent opinions simply because the holders of them never have thought of them side by side. There is probably a real tendency of our mind to avoid such confrontation of mutually inconsistent opinions.

Realization of these facts suggests where to look for a valid method of argument. It is not forcing our opponent to accept statements by an authoritative manner of delivery or by such a device as the extension, but by showing him how they follow from opinions that he already accepts. He may, for example, deny A but affirm B, and yet it may be true that B implies A. It is our business to bring B and A together in his mind so that he sees that if he affirms B, he must also affirm A. We are bringing face to face in his mind two opinions which presumably never have been face to face before. Perhaps they have been nearly face to face sometimes, and the holder has uneasily allowed them to wriggle apart when he became dimly conscious of their incompatibility. But now we must bring them clearly face to face without allowing any evasion. This method may be seen employed in Plato's *Dialogues*. The main method of Socrates was simply to discover by questioning what his opponent already believed, and then to show him that some of his earlier statements were inconsistent with later ones, and to require him to make a choice between them.

Such scrutiny of different opinions and of the logical relations of consistency and inconsistency between them is not only a valid method of argument; it is also a useful discipline

for our own minds. The co-operation of another person is, however, necessary, and such ordering of our opinions into a relatively self-consistent system is one of the fruits of intelligent discussion. If the activities of debating societies could take this form instead of being (as they often are) mere displays of dexterity in using dishonest tricks, they would serve a valuable purpose in education.

Teaching Accurate Thinking in Schools

Now it is clear that this matter of accurate thinking is one of some importance in a modern democracy. Any advantages that may result from allowing voters to make decisions on important political questions are to some extent neutralized if they are left at the mercy of those who exploit their tendencies to inaccurate thinking. It is clear also that we cannot expect a tendency to think accurately to come as a mere by-product from courses of school education directed to other ends. Accurate thinking must be taught in school by methods directed towards that end. This problem must be worked out by those who have a present-day knowledge of logic and psychology and also practical experience in teaching children.

The general principles of classification are, of course, taught in any biological science (in zoology or in botany), but the fact that these principles are general principles of thought and not merely convenient ways of naming animals and plants must itself be taught. No one will be a much better thinker merely by learning the phyla, classes, orders, and genera of the animal kingdom although he will have a useful start towards becoming one. Also the problems of interpenetrating classes and of incomplete correlation actually occur in the biological and social sciences and may be made the basis of general teaching of value for our subject instead of being evaded as difficulties.

I suggest that any teaching of accurate thinking should be largely practical, that it should take the form of finding arguments that have been actually used and exhibiting their formal characters. This may be done at first by replacing the

data by others more easily thought about (as I have done earlier in the argument about high speed) or, as a more advanced exercise, by using the symbols of traditional logic—A, B, and C—or by logical diagrams. The practical work should also include the directing of attention to the psychological factors already mentioned (prejudices, habits of thought, emotional phraseology, and dishonest tricks of argument). Suggestion technique in oratory should also be explained and understood.

Newspapers are to a large extent at the present time the principal formers of public opinion. Any educational work on current topics will necessarily use newspapers as material. While using these as sources of information, attention may also be directed towards the methods they adopt for influencing the opinions of readers. Suggestion technique is seen in the use of short, dogmatic headlines, varying from day to day, but directed towards the same central idea—‘Keep Clear of Foreign Entanglements’ and ‘Increase the Air Force’, in repetition of these ideas in leading articles, and in the selection of news items and letters pointing in the same direction. The appeal to habits of thought is seen in the newspaper’s general tendency to express on the majority of subjects opinions which are also those of their readers. The use of emotional phraseology may also be illustrated by the choice of words with emotional colour in order to commend or to discredit particular systems of ideas.

It cannot be too strongly emphasized that to introduce into schools the teaching of logic and psychology as ‘subjects’ would be a retrograde step. The new subject must be accurate thinking with so much of logic and psychology as is necessary for this purpose. In all respects, the pedantic method of approach is to be avoided, the subject-matter of the study is to be problems of current interest and not the mortality of Socrates or the mind-body problem. Our object must be to create citizens intelligently approaching the problems of their citizenship and not either young logicians or psychologists.

IV

CHAPTER 17

BROADCASTING AND THE TEACHING OF CITIZENSHIP

By W W VAUGHAN, M.V O, D LITT.

Chairman¹ of the Central Council for School Broadcasting

IT is only gradually that the role of broadcasting in education is being understood and developed. Its necessarily immature technique, the exaggerated claims made on its behalf, the reluctance of authorities to spend money on the equipment that is necessary if good reception is to be secured, in some cases even the anxieties of teachers and the suspicions of professional organizations have stood in the way of the rapid extension of this new educational auxiliary. But it is winning its way surely and in no field so rapidly as in that of education for citizenship. Even now broadcasting is having an enormous influence on the attitude of the old and of the young towards citizenship and all the duties, privileges, interests, and challenges involved in this much-misunderstood word. The actual gain is hard to assess, but it is there, and perhaps all the more permanently there because the broadcasts that have had most influence directly on the adults, directly and indirectly on the young have not been labelled educational.

Within the comparatively narrow limits of the broadcasts heard by what may be called the conscript audiences that gather in form-rooms during school hours, such subjects as Trade of To-day, Law Making, Law and Order, Unemployment, the Cabinet, Dictatorship, Parliament, The Water Supply, Public Health, Problems of Distribution, have been dealt with under many aspects and have enlarged the interests and stimulated the curiosity of many children, but its educa-

¹ In this chapter the author is expressing his own opinions and is not speaking in his capacity as Chairman.

tional benefits have not stopped here. It has been able without any proclamation of intention to fill up the educational gaps of those who never had the opportunity of formal learning after the age of fourteen, and to create new interests for others who may have been absorbed in over-specialized studies or even wearied by reiterated attempts to master subjects that seemed to them too remote from their future life work to arouse the curiosity that gives a savour to learning.

Even so humble an endeavour as the broadcasting of national ceremonies has familiarized thousands with institutions, customs, personages, and even problems of which they would otherwise have been unaware. The broadcasts on foreign affairs and on economic questions, the poignant descriptions of the lot of the unemployed, and those on the effects of the drug traffic have enlarged knowledge, provoked thought, and in not a few cases stung consciences. The conscience has often relapsed into dullness, the thought has often been anything but clear, the knowledge is frequently ill digested, but it is safe to say that millions have been made conscious of their own ignorance and induced to take the first steps to remedy it. They have become more discriminating readers of the newspapers, more critical listeners at public meetings, more conscientious voters at elections, municipal and national, because of what they have heard over the wireless about foreign affairs, unemployment, tariffs, Indian constitutional changes, and municipal problems. Instead of being merely citizens of cities, often mean and selfish, they have become citizens of the world realizing that Japanese action in Manchukuo concerns them no less than slavery in Abyssinia or unemployment in the United States; that the beauty of the country-side is in the keeping of the visitor from the town and that the town for its daily food depends on the toil of workers in this and other lands, reinforced by the foresight of merchants, the enterprise of ship owners, and the dogged endurance of seafarers. The brotherhood of man must mean something quite different to the man in the street in 1935 from what it did to his father at the beginning of the century. But there can be no need to labour the enlarging influence of

broadcasting on the adult citizen. He has been started on the road, and if it is true that it is the journey, not the arrival, that matters, an entirely new vehicle of progress has been put at his disposal, one in which he can give his children a lift from time to time and by which he can share some of the pleasure and interest they have had in their school hours

For it is in the school hours that something more than a casual and superficial acquaintance with the problems of citizenship can be given. A wise teacher will not be afraid of being superseded by this mechanical aid, he will use it as an ally for the enrichment of his own lessons, following up the suggestions, clearing up the difficulties, answering, but as the good teacher should, often failing to answer questions that the lesson has provoked, filling up gaps in knowledge, explaining and questioning, encouraging doubts, enlarging experiences, even refusing for the best of reasons to disturb prematurely the judgement that the child has formed.

On the subject of citizenship, more than on any other, the teacher is tempted to lay down the law, or when he is too tactful to do this or aware of the danger of provoking reaction by excessive insistence on one point of view, he acquires undue authority for his judgement on subjects on which opinions should differ, where right and wrong are not as clear as black and white, by the fact that he has to speak the last word on subjects such as mathematics, science, and languages where there is a right and wrong on which it is his duty to insist.

He may be relieved of the rather hateful necessity of what appears to be hypocritical insistence on his own impartiality or the fear of unfair prejudice by letting other opinions be voiced through the wireless. It is not only a wide range of teaching talent but a wide range of opinions that is made available. These latter should of course be selected to obviate complete confusion, but they should be representative and should be expressed by those who, though conscious that truth has many facets, feel it is the Light of Truth with which they are concerned.

It has been said that the broadcaster who a short time ago

was only an entertainer is now a civic educator too. Though he has not distracted many genuine readers from their books, though he has indeed sent many listeners back to their books, his real claim to gratitude is that he has been a new sort of book to many whose reading did not exist or was of the most trivial, ephemeral, or prejudiced character.

The expansion of leisure, good so far as it is due to the introduction of machinery and labour-saving devices that lighten the burden that life lays on human shoulders, disastrous so far as it is the outcome of unemployment with its attendant paralysis of interests and hopes, would be an even more bewildering problem than it is were it not that broadcasting, apart from its own recreative and stress-breaking qualities, is available to suggest activities not unworthy of the citizen. Even though it may be an exaggeration to speak of broadcasts as the beacon flashes of the political science lighthouse that can save the storm-ridden ship of state from shipwreck, they can illuminate the path ahead and occasionally warn the statesman or even the humble voter when it is unsafe to leave the protection of the harbour. So far as they bring their hearers into contact with the problems and the personalities of government and aim at encouraging thought rather than creating conviction, they foster a noble ideal of citizenship. Some nations have used broadcasting to commend a particular brand of government or theory of economics. Here, with our suspicion of propaganda, our distrust of ready-made opinions, this is less likely to occur. The best counteracting influence is abundant controversy—anything is better than the intellectual inertia that results from the exclusion from the programmes of all that provokes thought and discussion.

It is good for us all, especially for the young in age or in experience of public affairs, to listen to the expounding of faiths and prejudices not shared in by those with whom we are in daily contact; to be thrilled by the voice of any one who has a passionate belief in some cause, to realize that controversy may be sweetened by a wisely humorous treatment of the political and social indifferences that too often embitter

human relations, and to learn the lesson that it is only by hearing the points of view of many other people, by sympathizing with the fears and the difficulties of other nations, that the forgiving spirit that is essential to understanding and to progress can be won

All teachers suffer from a certain remoteness from the ordinary affairs of life. The absorbing and concentrated nature of their work during term time, combined with unusually long holiday periods often far away from home, and a certain stiffness of judgement natural to their profession, make it more difficult for them than for most people to take part in local or national affairs. They have, in consequence, fewer contacts with their fellowmen and the problems that make up the stuff of citizenship. Something has been done to remedy this by means of associations, conferences, and books dealing with the citizen's duties and responsibilities, but for the life-blood to be circulating in the body of teachers it is essential that the school background should be enriched. The twin fears of propaganda and controversy have made us over-cautious up to now. It is, indeed, fatal if the teacher is associated with one or the other, but it is almost as sad if none but pasteurized opinions are got into schools. Broadcasting here can play a useful part.

It has been said that the success of broadcasting depends on a partnership between the broadcaster and the listener. That this is literally true when listening is a voluntary occupation is obvious, it is almost as true when escape from the loud-speaker is apparently impossible, for careless and inattentive listening is barren of results—an unwilling ear reduces bodily presence to a farce. No broadcasting organization has a right to pride itself on giving abundant time to broadcasting on such a subject as citizenship in the adult or in the school programme, unless it has done its best to make the partnership fruitful by securing enjoyable subject-matter and by overcoming the disabilities and limitations of the medium by compensating devices. The many critics who are aware of the dangers of superficiality, who distrust knowledge and culture gained without apparent effort and are fearful of the

effect of ready-made opinions, must help more than they have done in the past. They can do so by welcoming and suggesting experiments, by noting reactions and helping to unveil the mysteries that at present surround any education given only through the ear. Will these critics also not ask themselves this question: Can mankind afford to ignore or leave undeveloped any means by which distrust between classes and nations may be dispelled, by which curiosity may be excited; by which a clue to the labyrinth of knowledge growing ever more puzzling may be put into the hand of eager learners, by which men may be helped to cope with the conflicting economic problems that wellnigh overwhelm them, by which the barriers of language may be more rapidly removed and men may pass more freely from country to country? It is true that the aeroplane has broken down many of the barriers of space, but the aeroplane is winged with destruction and at present is increasing the fears of the world, being associated with messages of death and destruction. Broadcasting is a more blessed activity, it is winged with peace and should bear to mankind a message of understanding as well as a challenge to mutual trust. Can we not use it less clumsily?

V. APPENDIXES

APPENDIX 1

THE TEACHING OF CITIZENSHIP THROUGH DOMESTIC SUBJECTS

By MARGARET WEDDELL, B A., B LITT

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Nature of the Bond

THERE is no need to force a connexion between Housecraft and Citizenship, it is there in a very obvious form. It is impossible to manage a house without coming into contact with the municipal authorities, if only for payment of water rates, removal of household refuse, or for notification of infection. The common needs of ourselves and our neighbours demonstrate plainly the necessity for united action, the need for mutual service. This link between domestic subjects and citizenship is beginning to be strongly felt by craft teachers in girls' schools. The syllabus for the Northern Higher School Certificate in Domestic Subjects includes 'Relations with Local Authorities on Matters affecting the Home and House Sanitation'.

The aim of the teaching in citizenship given by housecraft teachers is to promote full and interested understanding of what might be called municipal housekeeping, that is, the work of the city in such matters as the cleansing of the streets, lighting, water supply, municipal baths and wash-houses, buying and storing of food, care of young children, and recreational services, e.g. art galleries, libraries, and parks.

General Treatment

The subject lends itself to a comparison between the position of an individual in a household and that of a household in a town. The member of the household is independent in some

ways, but is dependent on the general household arrangements for cleanliness, food, comfort, recreation, and social life. A similar position is that of the family in regard to the town. The selfishness of the citizen who shirks his duties or opportunities of service can be made clear by comparison with a similar type of person in a home.

Pupils' Response

The fact that the aspect of citizenship treated by the domestic subjects specialist deals with simple human needs understood by every one is all to the good; they are concrete rather than abstract or academic. The subject is approached on its practical side, the only way by which one can reach the minds of our pupils of the 'B' and 'C' divisions—whose mental type, after all, is that of the great majority of the race. Whether this form of approach might not have advantages for the 'A' divisions as well is not a matter for discussion here, but the subject when treated in this way certainly makes a strong appeal to large numbers of the schoolgirls usually found in housecraft classes, who at present are chiefly from 'B' and 'C' divisions.

Method of Approach

The whole success of the course depends upon vivid presentation of the details of the subject-matter. The teacher should make herself thoroughly familiar, by reading and by personal inspection, with the housekeeping of the city. She should then put her pupils in the position of gaining first-hand information about these matters. She should organize visits. She should get her pupils to read round their subject and to give lectures on various aspects of them; she should encourage newspaper-reading on all matters of general town interest, from the acquisition of a picture for the art gallery to the use of the humane killer. The reading of text-books on citizenship should be encouraged, and for younger girls the collection of answers to such questions as are given in *The Citizen's Handbook* by Helen Madeley. Debates can rouse

interest in such topics as slum clearance, the employment of married women, and housing questions in general. The work of the city council should be carefully followed, if possible, after a visit to one of its meetings. For older pupils the historical development of some of the subjects is interesting—education, sanitation, regulations for health. The attention of both younger and older pupils should constantly be drawn to problems of possible developments in the future, and that type of discontent should be fostered which is likely to lead to reform.

Programme of Visits

As an illustration of the treatment of the subject in a series of school journeys the following list has been supplied. These visits were arranged for a 'B' division of a middle school form of a municipal high school by their form mistress, who was the Domestic Science Specialist.

SCHOOL JOURNEYS

FOOD

<i>Visit</i>	<i>Subject studied in School</i>
1. The Municipal Markets	Distribution of food-stuffs Economical purchasing of food A study of different and unusual foods
2. A Sail up the Canal.	Shipping transport of food Cold storage and other methods of food preservation Bond stores and how they function Granaries and their working
3. A Sterilized Milk Company.	Sources of the city's milk supply How the farmer is encouraged to produce clean milk Methods of sterilization and pasteurization.

CLEANSING

1. Public Wash-house	Comparisons of methods of washing Advantages of taking the wash out of the home Discussion of communal life in a district.
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| 2. Corporation Water-works, Sewage Works, and Destructor. | Sanitation in the home Care and structure of sanitary appliances
Tracing the improvements on early primitive methods
Good methods of softening hard water for domestic purposes.
Methods of refuse disposal |
| 3. Disinfecting Station | Infections in the home Methods of dealing with them
Notification of the authorities. |

LIGHTING

- | | |
|------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1. Corporation Gas Works | Study of use of gas for household purposes Comparison with electricity in regard to costs and cleanliness By-products in the manufacture of coal-gas |
| 2. Electricity Generation Station. | A study of electricity in the home
Experimental work in the physics laboratory Application in Domestic Science lessons |

Another scheme connects practical work on diets for little children with study of infant welfare centres and of nursery schools, and gives lessons on the school medical services, the Milk Board, &c, as well as on rates and taxes and the duties of a citizen Questions of housing and the care of little children appear to be of especial interest to schoolgirls One teacher writes 'In no Council Chamber was there any fiercer argument than we had in our classroom about the local slum clearance plan'

For Older Pupils

A third scheme, for pupils over 16, includes under the topic 'Cleansing' cleansing of the streets; collection of house refuse; history of town cleansing (prehistoric, Middle Ages), modern methods—incineration, separation and salvage, land reclamation and tipping, modern salvage plant, disposal of refuse—scientific side, manufacture of fertilizers, &c.; future possible developments.

This tracing of past history, with a full description of present practice and a looking towards a better future, stresses the idea of progress in everyday matters, one of the most valuable ideas we can suggest to our pupils.

Rural Areas

In rural areas there is the same need as in towns for the teacher of domestic subjects to make herself thoroughly familiar with what is done locally in matters of community-housekeeping. From this point, however, the educational problems to be faced are in some respects different from those of urban districts. In towns the girls will find material for interesting study in finding out how the domestic affairs of the city are managed. Water-supply, transport, cleansing, and recreation will each offer a wide scope for investigation. In some country districts it is only with difficulty that pupils can be got to realize that joint communal action can bring great benefits. Even in city secondary schools new pupils have been known to express surprise and pleasure at the amenities of a good hot-water supply and up-to-date sanitary arrangements. In country districts such things are often unknown. A teacher of housecraft states that when working in a rural area she could not get her pupils to visualize a bathroom, nor, without a great effort, to grasp what was meant by 'the collection of household refuse'. She considered that it should be a definite part of the work of the teacher to let country pupils have opportunities of seeing for themselves modern types of enterprise and equipment, and to rouse them to aim at experiment and progress.

In a boarding-school, the pooling of information about the resources of the home districts of the pupil can be made the basis of profitable comparative study, and even in country districts interesting discussions can be arranged after a series of 'school journeys' such as has been suggested, or after a holiday in which pupils have had opportunities of visiting other areas.

Work of this nature can be amplified by reading in the

newspapers about such contemporary phenomena as the Milk Marketing Board or ribbon development, and by becoming acquainted with the programmes of various progressive societies, urban and rural, such as, to name only a few, The National Smoke Abatement Society, The Council for the Preservation of Rural England; The Scapa Society (which publishes an excellent booklet on *Rural Refuse and its Disposal*), the Rural Industries Bureau, and the National Federation of Women's Institutes

The best of all methods of fostering a sense of citizenship through domestic subjects would be by the planning of a definite *Project* in connexion with the rural community. As Miss Marjorie Wise writes in her book *English Village Schools*: 'There is so little of the actual problems of modern life apparent in school work, either of the purely personal . . . or of the more general ones of the community-interest.' She suggests the following problems for practical solution by the schools. 'How can we get a hot-water supply for this village?' 'How can we build a village hall or a new school?' Other centres of interest might be found in some such local problem as that of sanitation for a caravan colony, or other provision for drying the clothes that so often disfigure the gardens of housing estates. Projects that would aid the formation of community sentiments may also be found in the making of collections of local recipes, of accounts of local home-crafts, or in the beginning of a folk museum of household utensils. Miss Joan Wake's book *How to Compile a History and Present-Day Record of Village Life* may be found useful by teachers working in a rural locality. It is published for the National Federation of Women's Institutes, an association which might be of assistance to teachers working at a Project on Housecraft subjects. Such a union as is here suggested between Housecraft and Citizenship brings together two fine ideals—those of progress and of service to humanity.

APPENDIX 2

THE INTELLIGENT READING OF NEWSPAPERS

By ERNST DYER, B A , M ED.

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THE traditional definition of an educated man as 'One who can read newspapers without being humbugged' loses none of its force as the years pass. Newspapers are indispensable to modern man, but, like certain other of his servants, they have a habit of making slaves of their employers. No education to-day is complete that ignores them, that fails to inoculate against the contagions they carry, that fails to offer clues to the constructive uses to which they may be put. It is as important to train young citizens to read newspapers with discrimination as to read books with discrimination; and from the social point of view immeasurably more important.

'Reader-Appeal'

Some training in the understanding of the press is afforded in the normal course of English teaching. Many written exercises take the form of reports, interviews, reviews of films, books, and plays, which purport to be written for publication in some newspaper or journal. Such exercises lead naturally to a consideration of different types of newspaper, for it is an axiom in the teaching of English nowadays that every piece of writing should be undertaken with a definite reader in view, and it is therefore important that the type of paper, if not the actual paper, for which the contribution is intended should be nominated by the writer. It will, of course, soon be apparent that the type of writing suitable for the *Daily Express* is not that best calculated to secure admission to the more stately columns of *The Times*. The successful writing of *Express* English—staccato, colourful, economical—may demand as high a measure of craftsmanship as the writing of *Times* English. The difference is that it demands far less effort of the

reader We realize that the *Express* and *The Times* are designed deliberately to appeal to quite different classes of people As soon as this is made apparent, as soon as the child learns to think of papers in terms of 'reader-appeal', his mind is already half-way to being disinfected against their more dangerous effects.

It is an amusing exercise, for forms above the third, to 'write-up' some event in several styles appropriate to several papers, and the boys are easily encouraged to discover for themselves how a similar event has in fact been handled by different journals Even a comparison of various press reviews of films may be made to illustrate various types of 'reader-appeal' Such a study will afford opportunity, too, to draw attention to one of the saddest characteristics of the popular press, the disintegration of the paragraph—itsself symptomatic of the exaltation of assertion over argument. To print more than six consecutive lines without ocular relief is held to make unreasonable demands upon the mental stamina of readers I recall spending a useful period with one form in reconstructing a highly snipped *Sunday Express* article by H. G. Wells into the thought-paragraphs in which we imagined Wells to have conceived it. Its subsequent publication, properly paragraphed, in one of his books confirmed many of our guesses

'Advertisement Appeal'

Such studies of 'reader-appeal' based upon the ordinary columns of the papers may be supplemented by a study of 'advertisement appeal' on the lines suggested by D. Thompson and F. R. Leavis in *Culture and Environment* What weaknesses of our human nature are various advertisements aimed to exploit? An interesting museum of specimens is easily compiled Fortunately, questions involving this kind of study are beginning to make their way into certain School Certificate English papers

Distortion

Comparisons between newspapers will lead pupils to a further discovery—that the content of news varies as much

as its presentation. The enormous sub-editorial powers of emphasis, distortion, and suppression are seen in practice. For example, at one of the recent sittings of the Royal Commission on Arms evidence was submitted on the same day by Mr. Arnold Forster, representing the National Peace Council and over a score of associated organizations, and by Sir Eustace D'Eyncourt, a Vickers naval expert. The *Daily Herald* 'splashed' Mr Forster and gave him 26 inches of space and some startling headlines (Cabinet Ministers and Vickers Shares, Have Aircraft Firms Secret Agreement?) as against 2 inches devoted to Sir E. D'Eyncourt. The *Times* gave Sir Eustace $7\frac{1}{2}$ inches and Arnold Forster 3 inches (with typically non-committal headings—Private Trading in Arms. The Question of Efficiency, The Incentive to Invention). The *Daily Express* ignored Arnold Forster's evidence entirely, but miraculously headed its report of Sir Eustace's speech with Plea for State Control of Arms Manufacture, a heading that was justified by nothing in the text whatever.

The Nature and Organization of the Press

By this time the boy or girl will gladly listen to some account of the history of the press and its present organization and grouping, to an analysis of the characteristics of the chief 'popular' and the chief 'quality' papers, to an account of the growing trustification and vulgarization since the early adventures of Newnes and Harmsworth. Discussions may embrace the correct relationship between news and comment, between news and 'magazine features', or the varied emphasis placed by different organs upon the factors in the famous recipe for News Value $NV = I \times A \times T \times HI$ (where I = Importance of event, A = Authority of Source, T = topicality, and HI = Human Interest). The teacher may find his material in George Blake's *The Press and the Public* (Faber and Faber, 1s) or in Von Stutterheim's *The Press in England* (Allen and Unwin, 8s 6d), a masterly volume that should be in every school library. The section on 'The

Present-Day English Press' is particularly valuable for class use.

In the writer's view, such matter should be introduced into the syllabus in the pre-School Certificate year. But it is his own practice to treat the whole subject in far greater detail in the sixth form civics course as part of a survey of all the factors which go to the creation of Public Opinion—wireless, cinema, platform and pulpit, as well as press.

The Use of Newspapers

Such work, however, needs to be supplemented by exercise in the constructive use of newspapers. The sixth former should know how to find his way about *The Times* or where to look for regular features in the *Manchester Guardian* or the *Observer*. He should be trained to extract data and store it for use. In the writer's school a number of papers are provided for sixth form use. These include *The Times*, the *Manchester Guardian*, *The Listener*, the *New Statesman*, the *Review of Reviews*, the *Observer*, and the *Sunday Times*. Clippings from these (or from other) papers are posted at intervals by the Form Cuttings Editor upon large fibre cuttings-boards with which the sixth form room is equipped. Such cuttings either throw light upon work being done in class or deal with matters of unusual topical interest or cultural importance.

A Cuttings Library

Experience showed that many of these cuttings—being articles or reviews by specialists of repute, or containing facts not available in books—were too good to throw away, and we have therefore installed a four-drawer steel filing cabinet (equipped with alphabetical guides, miscellaneous alphabetical folders, and loose folders) to house our growing library of them. One drawer contains cuttings primarily relevant to history, another to civics, a third to English, while the fourth is devoted to Ideas—religious, educational, scientific, philosophical. Each drawer is made the responsibility of an editor, who acts under the direction of the General Cuttings Editor.

The General Editor allocates material between the subjects; the Subject Editors decide in which folders to store it, or whether to open new folders for it, and make out reference cards for the card index—each cutting being entered, as a rule, on several cards to facilitate cross-reference. Four colours are used for cards, corresponding to the four drawers. The card index acts as an alphabetical guide to the whole file.

This work clearly provides the young editors with an excellent discipline, and the file itself is coming to assume a positive value. It is a useful mine not only for would-be essayists and debaters but for the teacher as well. Thus, the English master can enlist T. S. Eliot or Desmond McCarthy to demonstrate a point in literary criticism, and the Civics master pause in his discussion of, say, Smoke Pollution, while the latest statistics on the subject are extracted from the file.

APPENDIX 3

A 'MODERN' COURSE

By C C CARTER, M A , F R G S.

Assistant Master at Marlborough College

THE 'modern' course described below is designed for boys who in their post-School Certificate years have no wish or no aptitude for specialization along scholarship lines. Such boys include those going to the university, to Sandhurst, or directly into business. The scheme, part of the Modern Department's curriculum, is now in its sixth year and may fairly be said to have proved fundamentally sound in itself as well as stimulating to those for whom it is intended. Based on the history of the last 150 years is erected a study which is kept in close relation to the realities of contemporary everyday affairs.

The Modern Department comprises between ninety and a hundred boys during their post-School Certificate years. These are arranged in two separate streams, history boys and modern language boys, except that all are combined and re-arranged into sets for an option of Latin or mathematics or additional English. This option occupies four periods a week and is due mainly to the demands of examinations. The modern language stream does not concern us here. The history stream consists of three forms which, for simplicity's sake, may be called the modern fifth, the history sixth, the modern sixth. The modern fifth is made up of boys who have just passed their School Certificate, and consists of twenty to twenty-five boys. Since it forms an avenue to both the above sixths, its curriculum is in some small degree a compromise. The history sixth prepares for history scholarships and is fed by promotions from the modern fifth and by transferees from other departments, e.g. the classical. The modern sixth deals with history on wider lines, it also is fed from the modern fifth and by transferees from other departments, chiefly the classical. The following account refers only to the modern fifth and modern sixth.

Put shortly, the aim of the course is to take the considerable common ground of history, geography, economics, and politics and weld it into a composite whole, upon which rather more than half the time is spent. In doing this it is borne in mind (a) that the subject should have a real unity, with each part definitely related to the others, (b) that it should develop a background and approach not only to university courses in these subjects separately but also to other courses at the universities—and particular attention is called to the possibilities of Modern Greats at Oxford and to a combination of Triposes at Cambridge, (c) that the course should, however, be complete, so far as it goes, for the benefit of those boys who are not destined for a university career; (d) that it should provide for one year's preparatory work in the modern fifth and two years in the modern sixth, that is, three years in connected succession. At the same time each year in the modern sixth is made complete in itself for those boys who leave after only one year in the form.

The whole course is in some measure prepared for in the 'Middle School', which works for the School Certificate in history, geography, and English, which subjects are taken by all boys.

The scope of the work and the ideas behind it will probably be clearest to the reader if given in summary form and accompanied by lists of books found useful. Books are something of a problem in that not infrequently high cost precludes the use of those most desired, in this respect perhaps the greatest difficulty, so far not solved, has been to find a satisfying economic history of Europe, especially of France and Germany, at a reasonable price. At the same time, it should be borne in mind that the school libraries are available and have been made adequate in the subjects dealt with.

The Modern Fifth

Since this form offers an avenue to both the history sixth (for scholarships) and to the modern sixth (for a more general course), its curriculum is in part a compromise.

(a) The *History* is chiefly European, since preceding history work has been almost entirely British—(i) 1500–1871 in outline, (ii) 1871–1914 in detail Grant, *History of Europe*, Part 3, Grant and Temperley, *Europe in the Nineteenth Century*; Pribram, *England and Europe*

(b) *Medieval History* Ransom, *Medieval Christendom*, Stubbs, *Early Plantagenets*.

(c) *Geography* is directed toward a background related to present and future work in connexion with the history and contemporary realities—a term each to the European Background, Some Geographical Aspects of the Nation State, World Population Problems

(d) *Economics*—an Introduction to Economics (two terms) and Economic History (one term).

The Modern Sixth

The continuation of the plan in the modern sixth is designed to cover two years; yet each year's work, so far as it goes, is complete in itself for the boy who has only one year in the form. The course, therefore, is made up of two parallel, yet interrelated, schemes, arranged in such a way that for the two-year boy it matters little which is taken first. One year centres round Britain during the last 150 years and includes its expansion into the great colonies of settlement. The other year centres round the modern history of Europe and its expansion into the tropical colonies of exploitation.

A. First Year.

General Idea. The modern history of Britain leads us to its present economic, social, and political structure, its expansion into the great colonies of settlement, especially in North America. Geography as a separate subject disappears, but it enters strongly as an ingredient into the economic and colonial histories and their present-day results

(a) *British History*—with attention to economic, social, and political movements and constitutional development, including illustrations from original sources—GENERAL Muir, *The*

British Commonwealth, a biography. ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL. Knowles, *Industrial and Commercial Revolutions*, Carr-Saunders, *Social Structure of England and Wales*, Bennett, *Problems of Village Life*, Ashley, *The Economic Organization of Britain*, Jones, *North England*, Stamp and Beaver, *The British Isles*.

(b) *Colonial History* deals with the expansion into the great colonies of settlement, centred round the economic, social, and political evolution of the United States and Canada as types. Particular attention is given to the formative period from the Independence of the United States to Canadian Federation. On the constitutional side a satisfactory account is derived by working on a few great statutes and correlating with the British history. Currey, *British Colonial Policy*, or Egerton, *A Short History of British Colonial Policy*, Knowles, *Economic Development of the Overseas Empire*, Faulkner, *Economic History of the United States*, Keith, *Speeches and Documents in Colonial History*, Munro, *American Influences on Canadian Government*.

(c) *Economics*, a year's work to develop more fully the theories of production, exchange, and distribution. Books selected from Henderson, *Supply and Demand*, Cassel, *Fundamental Thoughts in Economics*; Leaf, *Banking*, Withers, *Meaning of Money*, Dobb, *Wages*; Cannan, *Wealth*.

B. Second Year.

General Idea European history from 1789 onwards, the Expansion of Europe into the Tropical Empires of Exploitation, and the Age of Constructive Imperialism

(a) *European History*—GENERAL. Grant and Temperley, *European History in the Nineteenth Century*, a biography. ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL. An Economic History of Europe with special reference to France and Germany (no satisfactory book at a reasonable price yet found); Fleure, *Peoples of Europe*; Carr-Saunders, *Population*

(b) *Colonial History* centres round the modern expansion of Europe into the Tropical Empires of Exploitation, especially in India and Africa, and leading to the Age of Constructive

Imperialism It includes the comparative methods of European nations, and the national, international, and world problems involved. Where British Dominions are required as types, the emphasis goes to Australasia and South Africa. Knowles, *Economic Development of the Overseas Empire*, vol 1; *Official Reports of Commissions* dealing with the problems, economic, social, and political, arising from the impact of European civilizations on oriental and lower cultures. Additionally on the constitutional side, work concentrates on a few great statutes, e.g. Keith, *Speeches and Documents in Colonial History*

(c) *Economics and Politics*. Selected Economic Problems, including an introductory study of a political subject, e.g. political institutions. Beveridge, *Unemployment*, Clay, *Post-war Unemployment Problem*. Beveridge and others, *Tariffs—the Case Examined*; Hawtrey, *The Gold Standard in Theory and Practice*; Cassel, *The Crisis in the World's Monetary System*; Hoover, *Economic Life of Soviet Russia*, Einzig, *Economic Foundations of Fascism*

In close conjunction with the course on the above lines four other features are perhaps worth mention—a parliament, a journal, a newspaper hour, and the preparation of a pamphlet.

The parliament, consisting of the modern fifth and sixth forms, has an average of thirty-six members. It meets once a week for two consecutive periods. Proceedings are modelled, as far as possible, on those of the House of Commons. At the first meeting of the term an election is held. The leaders of parties make election addresses in turn, and are questioned on any point of policy which a member may desire to raise. When the leaders have been heard, the members vote themselves into the party of their choice. The votes are counted at once, and the party strengths are announced. At present the parties consist of Conservative, Young England, and New Radical groups. The second might be described as National-Socialist, and the last as left-wing Liberal.

Following the elections of Speaker, Chairman of Committee, and Serjeant-at-Arms (who appoints two tellers), the House hears the King's Speech read by three Lords Com-

missioners The Speech has been drafted by the Prime Minister and his colleagues who have been summoned to form a government after the election. The Address-in-Reply is then moved and seconded, and a session is allotted to the subsequent debate. The House then passes to its work of legislation. Bills are typed and circulated to each member in advance of first reading. Their contents are generally determined by contemporary events, as for example a Sedition Bill, Air Force Bill, Traffic Bill, Provision of Recreation Facilities Bill, Unemployment Bill, &c. Bills are read three times, but with a different procedure from the House of Commons. First reading corresponds to second in Westminster, second to Committee of the whole House, and third to Report.

Every member has a constituency, and is addressed as the Hon. Member for X. Ministers and ex-Ministers enjoy the prefix of Rt. Hon., as also any ex-Speaker who is still a member, and ex-Chairmen of Committees. The Speaker is robed and is supported by the master in charge who acts as Clerk of the House. Members are compelled by one of the House rules to speak once in three sessions on pain of forfeiting their vote until they shall speak again. Delinquents are not many, and are generally those whose interest is least active. At the end of term the House is dissolved by the Lords Commissioners.

Such an institution encourages a lively interest in the affairs of the day, brings some realization of their complexity and importance, and familiarizes boys with the same problem from different angles. It awakens also an enthusiasm for parliamentary government as an end in itself.

In connexion with the parliament there has grown up a four-page journal *The . Times*, edited by the boys and printed by them on the school printing presses. Its subject-matter ranges from personal paragraphs to matters of political and general interest. It is issued once a term.

The newspaper hour is one of reading, explanation, and discussion. A weekly journal is taken by each boy, at present this is the *Listener* which has the merits of wide interests, expert writers, and low cost. Besides this, the form is divided

into groups of two or three each, and it is the business of each group to watch the daily and weekly papers for matter concerning the department allotted to it; this may be a subject, economic, social, or political, or it may be a particular country prominent at the moment. These subjects, one or more, come up for discussion during the hour

To the preparation and writing of pamphlets three or four periods a week are allotted and are generally supplemented by the boy's own time. For his pamphlet each is free to choose a subject in which he is specially interested, and this may or may not be related to the general plan. The 'papers' usually run to between 50 and 100 foolscap pages. Incidentally the in-school periods are useful for going through other work individually with members of the form. The following is a representative selection of pamphlets for the last two terms.

<i>Autumn Term</i>	<i>Spring Term</i>
(i) Naval History 1914-16	Naval History 1916-18
(ii) Anglo-Chinese Relations up to 1900	Anglo-Chinese Relations since 1900
(iii) The Transformation of China	Economic Rise of Japan
(iv) History of Education in England	Federal Problem in India
(v) Unemployment	The New Deal
(vi) Revolution in Russia	The Five Year Plan
(vii) Town-planning	History of Transport in England
(viii) Fascism	Hitlerism
(ix) American Civil War	Economic Development of the United States since 1890

APPENDIX 4

'GROUPED' COURSES

By F. C. HAPPOLD, D.S.O., M.A.

Headmaster of Bishop Wordsworth's School, Salisbury

TRAINING for citizenship is regarded at Bishop Wordsworth's School, Salisbury, as one of the most important duties of a school. The conviction, however, that such training is handicapped by the weight of the present often objectless and over-academic curriculum has led to a great deal of attention being given to the problems of curriculum reconstruction. These problems are discussed at length in my book *Citizens in the Making* (Christophers, 4s. 6d.) In this short statement it will only be possible to indicate how far we have been able to go up to the present, with some short reference to future developments.

It is considered that the basis of education for citizenship must be physical. Great attention is, therefore, given to physical education. A scientifically conceived system of rhythmic physical training has been introduced with excellent results in the growth of more harmoniously developed bodies, general health, and mental fitness. This training has been found to possess an aesthetic value, and it is our intention to connect it up with such aesthetic activities as music and possibly drama.

Every boy also receives some training in a manual skill. All give two periods a week to art, and for the majority there is additional time allowed for such activities as woodwork, bookbinding, &c. These activities are given a social value by providing opportunities for their use for the general good. For instance, the whole of the furnishings of the School Chapel are the work of the boys; members of the Science Sixths have done a good deal of work in equipping the chemical laboratory and making scientific apparatus, all stage settings and much of the stage-lighting system have been made in the school, while this term groups of boys

will work at the building of a games pavilion. Music and drama (actual acting on the stage) is also a regular part of the curriculum for all. None of these things are regarded as out-of-school activities but as a necessary part of the training of all if they are to grow into properly balanced citizens, capable of using their leisure to the best advantage.

It is considered that training for citizenship on its intellectual side cannot be accomplished by the addition of another subject to an already overcrowded curriculum, nor by the casual introduction of additional matter into the normal history and geography lessons. We are convinced that the only sound plan is to abandon the old divisions and unify the subjects known as history, geography, economics, and (in part) English, into a clearly thought-out whole, to place these new syntheses, so far as is possible, under the same master, and to replace much of the old knowledge-content by more useful material.

The school is, below the School Certificate groups, arranged in three divisions representing an alternative four or five years' course up to the taking of the examination. In the first year world history, geography, and simple economics have been combined into a unified course called World Heritage and Environment. The three sets are taught by a history, a geography, and an English specialist respectively. In the three sets of the second year, one, in which history, geography, and English have been combined, is taken by a history specialist, another, in which history and geography are combined, is taken by a geography specialist, the third, in which history and English are combined, is taken by an English specialist. The course concerns itself with our own national culture. No settled syllabus has yet been arrived at, but various ideas are being tried out.

In the third year boys receive a definite introduction to the character and origin of the world into which they will go. Much of the old material has been flung overboard to make room for such studies as the nature and needs of human society, modern economic organization, types of government in the modern world (studied in relation to

history and geographical conditions), current affairs, and such manifestation of modern life as newspapers, advertising, radio, cinema, and town-planning

In the School Certificate year European history (1815 to 1914) is taken, and in the Sixth Forms all boys spend two periods a week on such studies as recent world history and modern political, social, and economic organizations and problems. In these studies every problem is studied as an open problem; much free discussion takes place and wide reading is encouraged. The more academic studies leading up to the Higher Certificate examination are given a 'practical' interest. For instance, the history of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries is treated as a study in origins and constant reference is made to the working out of events in modern history, while a good deal of social science is introduced into the study of English Literature. For Sixth Formers who do not intend to take the Higher Certificate there are opportunities for work on economics, and such books as Leavis and Thompson's *Culture and Environment* and *Reading and Discrimination* are used as the basis of literary study.

Physical and mental fitness, cultivated taste, ability to use leisure properly, essential knowledge, all these are not enough. There must also be a sense of political and social responsibility, and a desire and capacity to serve. On a form of school organization with these objectives we are at present at work.

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OBJECT

To advance training in citizenship, by which is meant training in the moral qualities necessary for the citizens of a democracy, the encouragement of clear thinking in everyday affairs, and the acquisition of a knowledge of the modern world.

METHODS

1. To collect information in regard to training in citizenship in schools, colleges, and voluntary organizations at home and abroad

2. To arrange for the publication of books and pamphlets

3. To issue a journal, *The Citizen*, containing articles, reviews, and schemes of work.

4. To arrange conferences and meetings on questions affecting education in democratic citizenship; to promote discussion in the press and elsewhere.

5. To maintain a library and an information service for advice on schemes of work, sources from which speakers may be obtained, and suitable books.

6. To make representations with regard to training in citizenship to appropriate educational bodies.